The Nation.

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The Week.

Senator Hale's frank admission in the Senate on Monday that he wished the President had sent no delegates to the Morocco Conference, suggests fresh inquiry what its work is to be. It is to concern itself with the internal reforms needed in that country. It is to discuss, first of all, the organization of the police and the suppression of the contraband trade in arms. Next in order is the reform of the nation's finances, which calls for the establishment of a state bank, improved methods of collecting duties, and the creation of new revenues. Then comes the "outlining of certain principles destined to safeguard the economic liberty of Morocco." In addition, there is on the programme the special question of the policing of the Moroccan and Tunisian boundary and the controlling of the traffic in arms across it, which naturally concerns France and Morocco exclusively. Just which of the nations shall undertake this work of reorganization will, of course, be the knotty point in the discussions. Old residents of Morocco are firmly of the opinion that, however sympathetic the Sultan may be, the Moroccans themselves cannot be depended on to carry out the reforms. What is needed is such an economic upbuilding as that which has gone on in Egypt under Lord Cromer—an administration under which peace and order shall be permanent, and every inhabitant profit to the fullest extent by the national outlay. At the same time, the Sultan's independence is not to be assailed, and the reorganization of the country is to be beyond all else carried on by peaceful methods. The fanaticism of the inhabitants and their intense hatred of foreigners will call for quite as much tact and wisdom in the actual carrying out of the reforms as Lord Cromer has displayed in Egypt.

The mere statement of the problems to be considered must increase the wonder of Senators that the United States should be participating in the Algeciras Conference. If we really have any business in settling the national affairs of Morocco, we must be prepared next to go to work in Crete and Macedonia, and to take part in any future coercion of the Sultan of Turkey. Our trade relations with Morocco are so slight as not to call for a separate item in the monthly and yearly summary of our foreign commerce, being grouped under "All other Africa," which is credited with exports of only $33,813 for the eleven months of 1905 ending with November, and imports of $478,140 during the same period.

It was a Republican Congressman, Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, who on Friday exposed in the House the hollowness of the pretence that the tariff would one day be "revised by its friends." "If the tariff cannot be revised when two-thirds of the membership of both houses is Republican, when," he asked, "is revision to come?" He went on to make the prediction, implied in the letter of Gov. Guild of Massachusetts to President Roosevelt, that if the Republicans prove unequal to the work, the country will put the Democrats in power to do it. But there is one form of tariff revision for which the Republicans are reported ready—revision upwards. They cannot take off 10 per cent. to relieve Americans, but they can clap on 25 per cent. to fight Germans, and make the plight of Americans worse than before. In tariff wars both combatants are certain to lose, yet it is upon a tariff war with Germany that Congress is now preparing lightheartedly to enter. In answer to the protest of our alarmed exporters that our stupid tariff policy endangers their business with Germany, it is proposed to make it more stupid, and, if possible, cut off business with Germany altogether. All this from the party of enlightenment, at the very moment that the policy of tariff retaliation is being trampled under foot in England!

The postmastership of Podunk is, after all, the vital question before Congress to-day. A few private citizens, whose desires are unworthy of consideration, seem to be anxious about the construction of the Panama Canal, about railway rate regulation, the Philippine tariff, revision of the Dingley schedules, and Statehood; but real statesmen know that the progress of the country depends upon the distribution of pap. Thus, Representatives Overstreet of Indiana and Denby of Michigan have—in the expressive language of transcendental politics—"gone up in the air" because they could not "land" their men. Two of the Missouri delegation have openly joined the Republican insurgents against the Statehood bill, and others threaten to follow—not because they care a rap about Statehood one way or the other. The noble principle for which they stand is that the Missouri postmasterships belong to them. For that cause they will pour out their life-blood and kill every bill that is dear to the President or the Speaker. Representatives are no fools. They see that if they cannot settle questions of patronage, statesmanship is a hollow sham. The only thing left for a Congressman is to frame laws, prepare arguments, and discharge his duties as member of committees. But that is beneath the dignity of the Representative of a great commonwealth—mere work for office-boys and private secretaries. No man of parts will fritter away his talents over legislation when he should devote them to fighting for jobs for his henchmen. The government at Washington must and shall be preserved.

As was expected, the bill for consular reform has been reported by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations with nearly all the reform knocked out of it. A system of appointment and promotion by merit is too strong meat for the weak Senatorial stomach. What it needs is pap—the pap of patronage. Senators simply loathe the idea that consuls should be originally selected for capacity and promoted for efficiency. The adoption of such a plan would be a terrible blow to party "workers," and would even impair Senatorial grandeur. Consequently, the bill which Secretary Root advocated as a means of taking the consular service out of politics, and making it responsive to the needs and demands of American business men, has been reported in a sadly mangled condition. Consuls are to be named, transferred and promoted "as at present"—that is, by political favor. The Senate is willing, however, that they should be classified and their salaries increased, involving, we suppose, the abolition of the fee system. But the thoroughgoing reform pressed by the State Department the Senate will none of. Here is an excellent opportunity for the President to "do it anyhow." He would be entirely justified in making rules for the first appointment and subsequent promotion of consuls purely in accordance with the merit system. His friends have asserted from time to time that he would take such a step. If the Senate persists in treating the consular service as spoils, American commercial interests will turn to the President with redoubled appeals to rescue it.

Since the Washington air is surcharged with rumors of American expeditions to be landed at Canton or Shanghai, San Domingo or mayhap Venezuela, the report of the army General Staff in regard to our lack of transports is very enlightening. It is published by Senator Gallinger as part of his argument for the ship-subsidy bill, thus showing that the General Staff has civilian uses as

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well as military. Over against the grim threats a week ago of landing Gen. Funston and two brigades in China in the twinkling of an eye, the General Staff admits frankly that to move a force corresponding to our present military establishment "would require practically all the American shipping of suitable character in Atlantic waters, and more than the entire tonnage in Pacific waters." Most Americans, we fancy, will regard this lack of army transports as far from an undesirable state of affairs. If it will only keep the present Administration from plunging into oversea adventures, it is a condition to be tolerated. At least, it should make the Government see how impossible would be any offensive war with a great Power. Even if Senator Gallinger and the other subsidy men could, by enriching private ship-owners, create a great fleet of available transports, the question of coaling, provisioning, and landing abroad would still be impossible of solution, on a large scale.

Gov. Higgins's reasons for fearing an investigation of the various departments of his Administration, especially Insurance and Banking, are painfully obvious. Nobody is in the least deceived by the shallow pretext that the Legislature has no legal right to investigate. Such paltry quibbling is unworthy of a high-school debating society. There is one reason and only one why the Governor of New York dreads publicity: He knows, as every one else knows, that his two personal cronies and political supporters, Hendricks and Kilburn, are either dishonest or grossly incompetent. Their presence in office is a public scandal and offence; but they command so much influence that Higgins dares not touch them till their terms run out. The Fiscal Supervisor of Charities, H. H. Bender, is resorting to every technicality in order to escape the consequences of his violation of the civil-service laws; but the Governor is too timorous to move against him. The Corporation Tax Bureau rests under specific charges of venality, but the Governor wants to keep the Legislature from interfering. The shocking revelations secured by the Armstrong committee have roused suspicion against the whole Administration—notably the Railroad Commission; yet the Governor dreads to clean house or to have any one do it for him. He would rather have the State government stew in its own corruption.

The rejoicing of this country over the unprecedented steel exports in the month of December would mean more if we knew the prices at which these consignments of metal were disposed of abroad. It is not such a remarkable achievement to sell goods of any kind, even in the largest quantities, if one is willing to put the price low enough, and some other customer stands ready to bear whatever loss may accrue. How, as a matter of fact, did the purchasers of these rails and billets and structural materials fare by comparison with American consumers? It is not known exactly, but the details of many similar transactions are public property. Testifying before the Merchant Marine Commission a year and a half ago, for instance, James C. Wallace, then vice-president and since president of the American Shipbuilding Company, said:

> "Recently one of our largest steel mills sold abroad 100,000 tons of steel plate. They delivered it, I understand, at Belfast at $24 a ton. That would practically mean, with ocean rates as they are, $22 a ton at tidewater. They are charging us to-day at Pittsburg $32 a ton."

If such a difference existed with reference to the 52,000 tons shipped from Eastern ports alone in December—leaving out all consignments from Southern and Pacific Coast points, it meant a discount of approximately a half-million dollars in a single month to the foreign purchaser. But, of course, all the excess price paid by the home consumer goes straight to the pockets of honest American workingmen, and they, and not the Trust, would suffer were Congress to equalize this by a change in the tariff.

The late President Harper of Chicago University habitually deprecated the fame he had attained as a money-getter, and would have chosen to be remembered by the innovations he framed in university administration and teaching. It was these that fairly gave him his nickname, "the business president." Efficiency was his watchword long before it was Lord Rosebery's; and most of his peculiar policies were based on the conviction that our traditional methods of higher education are backward and time-wasting. Thus, at the outset he abolished the long vacations, or, rather, made them optional with students and professors, continuing the University terms throughout the calendar year. This permitted the diligent student to shorten his course, the provident instructor to accumulate vacations beyond the regulation three months, and required the occasional recruiting of the faculty by temporary (quarter-year) appointments from outside. All these changes were in the direction of flexibility. Again, when it was discovered that the University of Chicago lacked college life and spirit, college life and spirit were straightway improvised, or at least encouraged, by the appointment of a famous athlete to the faculty, and later by the building of dormitories. No detail of university life escaped President Harper. He urged the duty of frequent publication and a discreet publicity upon his professors, as he did that of enthusiasm upon his students. To slow methods of incubation he was temperamentally averse, whether it were a case of a scholastic *magnum opus* or of alluring the minor colleges and universities of the Middle West into feudal relations with the University of Chicago. When one considers the actual accomplishment of his fourteen years' tenure, it must be admitted that rarely has so much thought and energy been thrown in an equal time into a similar work.

The colleges are at last making athletic reform hum. At Harvard the overseers have forbidden football to be played until the rules are changed to their satisfaction; Yale is said to be willing to desert the old Rules Committee; at Union, football has been abolished, and, strange to say, by vote of the students; the University of Wisconsin has faced the athletic problem broadly by instructing its delegates to the Western conference to vote for the suspension of intercollegiate contests. Everything indicates that the agitation is serious, and that this time something will be done. Meanwhile, it is wise to distinguish between athletic abuses that are a result of American conditions in general, and those that pertain to any particular branch of sport. The much-advertised reform of football should be regarded as merely a beginning of a new dispensation in college sport generally. It might, theoretically, be possible to impose upon interlocked rushlines the leisurely affability of so many "floorwalkers," and yet the inflated expenditure, the overcrowding, the generally exaggerated excitement attending the games would persist. The remedy, for the present, lies in a reduction of intercollegiate games to the minimum, and in encouraging sports within the colleges. By this means, the field demonstration of the effect of new football rules, which President Eliot is said to desire, could best be effected.

London's first pollings destroy the last hope of the Tories, that they might yet escape disastrous defeat. If they cannot save their seats even in London, it is all up with them. In 1900 the Tories carried 55 out of the 62 metropolitan constituencies; at the present rate they may win barely 20. And the Liberal triumph goes on mounting throughout the country. Seat after seat reckoned securely Tory has been snatched. Mr. Balfour's brother Gerald went down at Leeds on Monday, and another member of his Cabinet, the Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Long, was beaten at South Bristol. Even Liberals must regret the defeat of Lord Hugh Cecil and Gibson Bowles. Both were ornaments of the House for industry, wit and character, and the debates will be duller for their absence. The fact that both these Unionist free-traders owed their defeat to a Chamber-

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lainite running independently against them, will further embitter the party against Chamberlain. His plight is pitiful. Hard on to seventy years, and with a Liberal Government before him good for four or five years, his dream of becoming Prime Minister on the protection issue must now have vanished.

Tory as for the last twenty years Manchester has been, Saturday's polling shows that it is still loyal to the fundamental doctrine of that school of political thought to which it gave its name. In the Corn Law days it was Liberal and Radical. Nearly seventy years ago, when Gladstone was not yet twenty-eight, and when he was fast becoming what Macaulay, a couple of years later, called him, the rising hope of the stern and unbending Tories, Manchester would have none of him. In 1837, in consequence of the death of William IV., Parliament was dissolved. Gladstone was put up for Manchester, but he was left at the bottom of the poll. In the next half-century both the statesman and the city changed position. Gladstone, first a Free Trade Conservative, then a Liberal, had for the last thirty years of his life, in the eyes of his Tory opponents, all the seeming of a dangerous Radical. Manchester, thoroughly and uncompromisingly Liberal so long as Protection in any of its forms was at all a political issue, drifted towards Conservatism when Free Trade had been, as it then seemed, definitively won.

Even before the great Liberal leader's championship of Home Rule had split his party elsewhere, Manchester had passed over to the Tories. At the election of 1885, when Parnell was still ordering his followers to vote against every Gladstonian candidate, the Conservatives carried five of the six divisions of Manchester. Since then their party has never held less than one-half of its seats, and, for the greater part of the time, of its six members only one has been a Liberal. At the election of 1900 there was no Liberal candidate at all for Northwest Manchester, the very division for which Winston Churchill was on Saturday returned by a majority of 1,241. Six years ago, in the other five divisions, the aggregate Conservative majority was 6,000 in a total vote of 41,000. On Saturday every division was contested. There were upwards of 57,000 votes returned. Mr. Balfour and every other Conservative candidate were beaten, and the aggregate Liberal and Labor majority was 13,000. For the first time since the passage of the Reform Act of 1868, no Conservative will sit in the new Parliament for the great cotton metropolis. In proportion to the total vote polled, the overturning in Manchester is as great as that which would be required to turn McKinley's plurality of 143,000 in New York in 1900 into a Democratic plurality of 325,000 in 1906. It may be noted in passing that, though the total vote was much the heaviest ever returned in Manchester, it is only about half that which is cast at a warmly contested election in an American city of the same size. Manchester has about as many people as St. Louis or Baltimore. In 1900 the former cast 125,000 votes, and the latter 113,000.

Forty-one writers, artists, and scholars in Germany have memorialized their English colleagues for a better understanding between the two nations. They regret extreme anti-British expressions made in Germany during the Boer war, and they protest against false and reckless statements in the British press which embitter relations and render most difficult the task of peace-making that lies before the Morocco Conference. These Germans maintain that the two nations have been and are bound together by reciprocal ties of culture, religion, art, and scholarship, and bespeak a setting aside of prejudice and a more cordial recognition of the solidarity of British and German civilization. To such an overture of good will but one answer was possible. Forty-one British worthies promptly welcomed this open letter, and responded with counter expressions of friendship, and with sincere deprecation of "the affected belligerency of some of our journals." Such an interchange of good wishes must in a measure make against the chauvinism that equally afflicts both nations; and if it be said that these pacific sentiments are adopted only by certain *intellectuels*, without influence upon the masses, one can only reply that international understandings have historically always begun among this educated class.

To show that the German protest against unfriendly treatment by the British press is not made without reason, we cite a characteristic instance, not from the yellower precincts of the Strand, but from the *Times*. Shortly before December 27, the German Emperor, speaking in a private gathering, denied that there was a war party behind him, professed the most pacific intentions, praised the "tact and firmness" of M. Rouvier in the thorny Morocco negotiations, and declared that the "most conciliatory instructions" had been given to the German Ambassador at Fez. This most welcome news was forwarded by the *Times's* Paris correspondent under date of December 27, and printed briefly as a "rumor." Next day the Paris correspondent had his doubts. The alleged Imperial statement was purely unofficial. A "trustworthy source" had provided a supplementary clause, in which the Kaiser had subordinated his zeal for peace to the maintenance of national honor. There were reports of military preparations on the railroads near the Belgian frontier. The third day, the Imperial utterance being officially confirmed, the Berlin correspondent points out that it means no essential change in attitude; the Paris correspondent finds that the overture "does not appear to have made any impression on the French public—at all events, not the kind of impression which was apparently intended"; this, that, and the other Paris journalist remain skeptical. A formula based on this case would run as follows: Subject all news creditable to German good sense and feeling to these three operations: (1) Print it without emphasis; (2) question its authenticity; (3) if that be established, minimize its value and challenge its sincerity. Evidently the gospel of peace itself would come off badly in the *Times* office under the application of this rule of three.

Count Witte's answer to his critics might be in the words of the French statesman when asked what he did during the Reign of Terror: "I lived." The Russian Premier has survived an unparalleled series of risings against the powers of government, and, if order does not reign in Warsaw and Moscow, chaos at least has not taken its place. He has not, it is true, won over the antagonists who distrusted him when he assumed office. Even semi-official papers, like the *Slovo* and the *Novoe Vremya*, continue to speak of him as a juggler; reactionaries and bureaucrats detest him; Moderate Liberals and Conservatives give him but guarded support, while Radical Liberals concede to him at best the ability of a Necker, with all the limitations of the French financier. "Witte's ideal," says Prince Kropotkin, "is a liberal, half-absolute and half-constitutional monarchy, of which he would be the Bismarck, standing by the side of a weak monarch. He will not be a great statesman, because he scoffs at those who believe that in politics, as in everything else, complete honesty is the most successful policy." Witte himself has deplored the fact that only the revolutionary elements in Russia seem to have a common purpose, while the friends of order are divided and unwilling to support the Czar and his Government. To foreign criticism of the arbitrary acts of his Ministry he replied: "Foreigners, in truth, do not understand Russia at all. Before the events of last October they were agreed that all would be well as soon as a Constitution was granted. Now they are frightened because everything appears to be in disorder. As a matter of fact, their anxiety is just as exaggerated as was their previous hopefulness."

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CONGRESS ON ROOSEVELT'S HANDS

Without accepting too confidingly all the stories that come from Washington, it is evident that the relations between the President and Congress are strained. From the beginning of the session things have not gone smoothly. The Administration programme has visibly stuck on the ways. And a personal element has contributed to the tension: many Congressmen have taken offence at Mr. Roosevelt, for one reason or another, and do not conceal their pique. That the President himself has lost something of his customary amiability, we may believe without depending upon the gossip, partly amusing, partly disquieting, which is traceable to recent callers at the White House. Mr. Roosevelt's message to Congress last week was one long burst of ill temper. It argued a frame of mind poorly fitted either clearly to perceive the actual situation in Congress, or to deal with it.

President Roosevelt obviously suffers from never having served in Congress, and so caught something of its point of view. Next to his lack of legal training, his frequent inability to hit off the tone of a representative and legislative body is perhaps his greatest handicap as President. Only think of McKinley's unfailing skill in that regard! He had an instinctive feeling for the Congressional way of looking at all questions, and seldom failed to adjust himself to it with the nicest tact. Whenever he stroked Congress, the resultant purr was audible; but Mr. Roosevelt seems usually to rub the fur the wrong way, and to elicit such angry spittings and clawings as we now see. It is a defect at once in his experience and his temperament.

The trouble between President and Congress springs partly from the old curse of patronage. Even in the hands of a President who had been a zealous civil-service reformer, that governmental evil has lost little of its power to work mischief. Exasperated Senators and inflamed Representatives are as thick in Washington as in the days when the spoils system frankly reigned. And the worst of it is that the President appears to be using the arguments of a spoilsman at the same time that he is professing to make appointments in the spirit of a reformer. That is to say, in his efforts to aid Speaker Cannon in rallying a party majority in the House, the President urges, appeals, and threatens, on the ground of patronage, just as a McKinley or a Grant might have done. This is happy neither way: it does not satisfy or appease Congressmen; it does not make reform appear either strong or consistent.

Behind patronage, policies. Some of those which the President is backing are distasteful to Congress. While dear to Mr. Roosevelt's heart, he cannot arouse public enthusiasm about them, because the public is almost wholly indifferent. Where is the evidence that the people care a straw about San Domingo? The President's Panama troubles are likewise a matter largely between himself and Congress; the public cannot be made excited about them. Thus Mr. Roosevelt is left to fight those quarrels unaided. The old heart-filling hurrahs from the people do not come to spur him on. Meanwhile, the causes upon which he might have appealed strongly to the general sentiment of the country are held in abeyance. The Machiavellian "railroad schemers" whom Mr. Roosevelt's friends so often see in affrighted visions, must be chuckling over the way in which the railroad-regulation bill has been subordinated to San Domingo, Panama, Mr. Bishop, and Mrs. Morris.

One cause of President Roosevelt's impatience with Congress is his consciousness of being still the people's darling. There is no sure sign that his popularity has diminished appreciably; he even added to it by his part in bringing about peace between Russia and Japan, last summer, and by his tour through the South; how, then, dares Congress to withstand him? But there is an old political truth which Mr. Roosevelt does not appear to have sufficiently weighed. This is that an Administration, no matter how strong it may seem in popular support, no sooner begins to live than it begins to die. Mr. Cleveland perceived this in 1892. Shortly after his triumphant election in that year, he wrote a letter to Mr. Lamar which predicted the troublous days of his coming Administration, and which is a monument to his political sagacity. A President once in office, and pledged as Mr. Roosevelt is not to seek another term, becomes a more negligible quantity than he likes to think. Political interest soon centres elsewhere. Who is to be the successor? What faction, what machine of the many which are assembling their parts, is to force the next nomination? Those are the instinctive questions of politicians who always hasten to prostrate themselves before the rising sun. They are doing it in Washington to-day. So many Presidential booms are in the making that the authority of the President who has been made is necessarily impaired. Congressmen are more anxious to be "solid" with Fairbanks or Shaw, Foraker or Taft, Root or La Follette, than to wait upon orders from the White House every day. It is this scheming within the party which partly accounts for the President's inability to whip it into line for his pet measures. And when we add to that the inveterate and unyielding greed of the protected interests, against which the President's Philippine bill has run as against a stone wall; the disposition of Congressmen selfishly to consult their individual political fortunes more carefully than the President's; and Mr. Roosevelt's ill-judged acts and utterances, we have little difficulty in explaining the coil into which he has got himself with Congress.

It would be rash to prophesy that he will not pull himself out gracefully, or at least victoriously. He has immense resources; real political skill; proverbial good fortune. Once fairly in a corner, he knows how to yield with a smiling face, and claim a great triumph. So it is possible that the present war-clouds on Capitol Hill will roll away; but meantime we are to have a severe test of the President's political generalship.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE BOSSES.

Current rows and heartburnings at Washington over Federal patronage raise again the whole question of the complicity of the National Government in fastening the tyranny of corrupt bosses upon States and cities. Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, in his *North American* article on the triumph of honesty at the polls in Philadelphia, points to the extraordinary fact that the whole effective power of the Administration at Washington was against the reformers. This was because the President had allowed the Pennsylvania Senators to dictate all the appointments. Consequently, though Mr. Roosevelt might express sympathy with the good cause privately, and though Secretary Root might openly wish the honest citizens of Philadelphia godspeed in their efforts to oust "a corrupt and criminal combination masquerading under the name of Republicans," the whole force of Federal officials was working night and day to save the bosses from the wrath to come. Mr. MacVeagh states, in dwelling on the "alliance between the Executive Department of the National Government and the bosses cynically engaged in despoiling Philadelphia and Pennsylvania," that "almost every person in Pennsylvania who had been honored with a commission bearing the signature of President Roosevelt, was the avowed, persistent, and reckless opponent of that decency and honesty in politics for which President Roosevelt has so courageously battled all his life."

That is sorrowful history. The lamentable present fact is that the same process is apparently in full vigor once more at Washington. In meekly knuckling to the demands of Senators in the matter of appointments to office, Mr. Roosevelt is, by so much, declaring himself in favor of the rehabilitation of the bosses. Ever since last November's election the question of thoughtful citizens has been: "Shall we be able to secure the fruits of the people's victory? Are the smashed machines to remain in fragments, or will they be put together again and set running more remorselessly than before?" Well, the repair gang has called upon the

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President for aid, and he is giving it to them.

For example, note the significance of his throwing just now an extra appointee to Senator Beveridge of Indiana. It is promptly and properly taken as a favor to the Beveridge machine. The newspapers are beginning to reckon up how many "men" the Senator now has on guard. Thus, we read in the Washington *Post* of Thursday:

"With this appointment, Senator Beveridge will now have in the Federal building at Indianapolis the following personal appointments: Judge Baker, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals; Judge Marsh, pension agent; Elam Neal, collector of internal revenue; H. W. Bennett, postmaster; Mr. Pettit, United States marshal, and Mr. Rothschilds, surveyor of the port."

We are far from asserting that Senator Beveridge is a corrupt politician. He has, it is true, shown a pretty taste in spoils. With Scriptural zeal, he has insisted that the Government provide for those of his own household. We suppose, however, that he wishes to create and control a machine more for political than for pecuniary objects. Yet the same vicious system is illustrated in his case, tolerably innocent though that may be, which in Pennsylvania, in Illinois, in Ohio, in New York, and New Jersey has fixed upon those Commonwealths and their chief cities a ruthless organization of plunderers.

Let there be no mistake about this. A local boss, just in proportion as he is cunning and corrupt, reaches out his hand for Federal patronage. It is not, of course, his smirched palm that is thrust into the President's face; a respectable Senator is sent to do the asking. But we all know how endless are the affiliations, the plottings, the secret influences, the threats, the bribes, the trickeries, the betrayals of the boss. Nothing is too small for him to attend to; nothing too large for him to aspire to control. His "system" works up and down through all the commercial and political life of his State. It was easy for Quay to get "eminent bankers" or "distinguished jurists" to back his pet scoundrels. Writes the blunt Mr. MacVeagh: "What Mr. Jerome has recently said of some of the judges of New York, is eminently true of some of the judges of Philadelphia and throughout Pennsylvania, in all the grades of our judiciary." The machine knoweth its own. Having created judges and Senators, it calls upon them to fall down and worship their creator. The messenger to the White House may be a Senator; but the principal is waiting in some secret office, miles away, with his ear to a telephone, anxious to learn whether the President has made one more place for a serviceable tool. When Senator Dick was demanding a consulate last year, what surgery could have dissected out his real personality from that of Boss Cox? In Pennsylvania, Penrose and Durham were blended indistinguishably. The President could not smile upon the Senator without fawning upon the Boss.

Here in New York we see the peril threatening. In the room of the deposed Odell, it is proposed that Aldridge or Woodruff be set up. Either would soon make Odell seem fairly respectable. In any case, the restoration of the New York machine with a new boss is buzzed about all over the State, and the implication is that the President will turn over the desired patronage. The Senatorial intermediaries do not count with us just now, but it will not be long before the new machine has its errand-boys in the Senate, and then the question will be whether Mr. Roosevelt will help forge anew the chains of political slavery for us. He will do it infallibly, just as he will do it in other States, if he abdicates his Constitutional function in favor of the Senate. No overmastering desire to obtain legislation from that body—as to which he may easily be betrayed again—should blind him to the fact that the surrender of the power of appointment to Senators means giving fresh courage to the bosses everywhere. The very best fight against the return of the crew which the people spoke their minds so emphatically about last November, would be made by a Chief Executive who should point clamorous boss-made and boss-allied Senators to the Constitutional provision: The President shall nominate."

ONE WAY OUT OF THE PHILIPPINES.

Congressman McCall has revived a plan to get this country out of the Philippine difficulty. He has introduced a resolution authorizing the President to enter into negotiations with the Powers of Europe for the purpose of making neutral territory of the Philippine archipelago, with an independent government recognized internationally. This proposition would spike the guns of those who are seeking, on one pretence after another, to tie us up to the Philippines indefinitely for purposes of commercial exploitation. It has been their favorite contention that if we should withdraw from the archipelago, Japan or Germany or some other Power would immediately pounce upon the prey. For us to permit any such aggression, it has been alleged, would be nothing less than a breach of faith with the Filipinos, for no other country could possibly have such humanitarian motives as ours.

What Mr. McCall proposes can be assailed on the ground neither of precedent nor of feasibility. Switzerland and Belgium have long been neutralized by international agreement. Switzerland would in all probability have been absorbed by envious neighbors had it not been that her perpetual neutrality and the inviolability of her territory were guaranteed in 1815 by Austria, Great Britain, Portugal, Prussia, and Russia. No nation has ever tried to violate this agreement, and none would be allowed to. The same is true of Belgium. In 1831, Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia settled the quarrel between Holland and Belgium, provided for the separate existence of the latter, and declared it to be thenceforth a perpetually neutral state. When the Belgian frontier was menaced by the war of 1870, Great Britain served notice that she would take sides against whichever combatant should violate Belgium's territory. This warning was enough. Neither France nor Germany cared to bring England into their strife.

This idea that a territory can be put beyond the reach of land-grabbing Powers by national agreement, has by no means been overlooked in the years since 1831. The United States, by the Monroe Doctrine and its subsequent interpretations, has practically assumed to do that very thing for South America. Later, Secretary Hay, in his efforts for the open door in China, induced the great nations to promise to keep their hands off China during the war between Russia and Japan. And the Portsmouth treaty of peace, together with the new Anglo-Japanese pact, has practically neutralized China for a long time to come. Mr. McCall's suggestion is therefore in line with our best traditions as well as in accord with the historic American spirit of fair play towards those who are weak. Its adoption would free the future of the Filipinos from uncertainty. More than that, there is not a single obstacle in the way of an international agreement. Japan and England would welcome it as simplifying the Eastern problem in which they are deeply concerned, while the German Emperor would undoubtedly seize the opportunity to show once more his genuine friendliness towards the United States, and confute those Jingoes who, ever since the blunders of his Admiral Diedrichs in Manila Bay, have insisted on his hostile intentions. France, Russia, and Italy could also make no possible objection. Indeed, if Mr. Roosevelt would but bring to the task a tenth of the astuteness, enthusiasm, and energy which he applied to the Russian and Japanese peace negotiations, the matter could be carried through within the year.

But the hitch, it may be said, will come over the proposed independent government. Secretary Taft will be certain to rise up once more and solemnly argue that no man must utter the word independence out loud and couple with it a promise or a date. But there are signs that his party has got well beyond him. His own specially organized excursion to the Philippines failed to arouse enthusiasm among its members. If President McKinley could return to earth he would be astounded at the change in sentiment. He would hear many party leaders privately wishing

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the islands anywhere but in our care. He would be surprised by the number of Imperialist newspapers, like the Minneapolis *Tribune*, which are heartily sick of the whole business; and would find Congress in a sad snarl over the simple question of giving the Filipinos a chance to export their sugar and tobacco free of any tax. But far more significant is the total absence of any real interest in the Philippines in the current debates. Mr. Taft and the President may appeal all they please to the honor and generosity of Congressmen; the latter want nothing except to wash their hands of Philippine affairs.

In this hurly-burly, Mr. McCall's proposal should fall gratefully. The fact that it is fathered by a Republican Congressman and is to have the endorsement of Senator Crane in the Senate, will relieve from the charge of party irregularity any Republican who speaks or votes for it. Best of all, it can be said for the neutralizing plan that it would be an act of justice, relieve us from the expense and worry of maintaining troops, forts, and fleets to guard them, and enable the Filipinos to begin to govern themselves at once, free from interference, no matter how many times they may stumble and fall before they learn to stand on their feet.

DARIUS GREEN'S PROGENY.

In one respect, at least, the development of the art of flying by human contrivances has been unique. General public interest was not aroused in steamboats until one was able to propel itself; there was never a public view of the telegraph until it was so perfected that messages could be sent by it; and most other inventions, whether small or great, have been given to the world when they had been made workable, and not before. But the progress toward a practicable flying apparatus has all been made in the open. Inventors have, of course, carried on their experiments with the customary privacy, but as each one has worked out only some small part of the problem, the public has been enabled to watch substantially every step. The Aero Club's exhibition, which opened in this city on Saturday evening, has thus one entirely novel aspect. It is, in a sense, an assembling, from all parts of the world, of the constituent elements for an invention which has not yet been made, namely, a machine that will fly after the fashion of a bird.

The steering of balloons was at first the only problem that aeronauts considered practical. According to the accepted physical formula for determining the sustaining power of a column of air, a bird the size of a duck would have had to expend the better part of a horsepower to keep itself off the ground; and to lift a man, let alone an engine, by means of wings or planes, appeared absolutely visionary. Only rural "cranks," of the Darius Green order, seriously tried the thing. Then came the series of experiments that not only exploded the old formula, but showed it to be comparatively easy to construct an engine that will lift its weight against the air. Sir Hiram Maxim constructed a large apparatus with wide supporting planes and rotary propellers which could be started along ordinary rails, and, when it reached a certain speed, would rise so that its wheels ran along the under side of another set of rails placed above the first. The assumption then was that if such a machine were launched in a spacious enough place, it would fly, and the difficulty of finding such a place in England was the reason why the inventor paused.

As a matter of fact, the question of balancing, which was then considered a secondary matter, has since been realized to be the crux of the whole problem. Otto Lilienthal, who met his death in pursuit of his hobby, studied the art of soaring from a height by means of rigid wings that were elevated or depressed merely by the balance of the operator's body. Professor Langley of the Smithsonian Institution has made several models that "flew," but it was too erratic flight that wrecked his last creation, the "Buzzard." The success of the Wright brothers in controlling aeroplanes has received much notice in the last two years, and their invention has just been bought by the French Government. So progress has been made in the art of actual navigation as well as on the purely mechanical side.

In the meantime, Santos-Dumont and his disciples on both sides of the water have brought the dirigible balloon to such perfection that it will run against a very light breeze, and in still air can perform any evolution. Of course, the gas-filled airship is a fundamentally different thing from a craft which rises by its own power; but the experimenters with the former have been steadily lightening their motors, and every reduction in the number of ounces per horsepower is a help to the work of the other group.

"Man will be able in due time to soar after the manner of the eagle, which utilizes the energy of the wind against which it flies for its own propulsion." This is the prediction of Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, one of whose kites only this month performed the feat of lifting, thirty feet above the ground, a 185-pound man with tackle weighing 62 pounds. Professor Bell's device has never yet been made a part of an airship or been combined with an engine and propeller, but it is unquestionably one of the most important inventions yet made in connection with the conquest of the air. On the lines followed by the pioneer inventors, it might be possible to make a small apparatus practicable where a large one would fail. With a given design, while the sustaining power increased with the square of the dimensions, the weight would increase with the cube. Even the box-kite, with which many experimenters have worked, requires bracing whenever several kites are bound together, and increases in weight faster than in lifting power.

Professor Bell's tetrahedral kite overcomes this objection. It is merely a frame of six sticks of equal length fastened at the corners so as to form a triangular pyramid. Two sides are covered with some thin fabric. Each of such units is absolutely firm and stable, needing no additional bracing; and they can be bound together in any desired number without impairing their efficiency. So, according to the published studies, the lifting power increases exactly as the weight. Ten units weigh ten times as much as one and will lift ten times as much. There would seem to be no theoretical obstacle to constructing such a kite or aggregation of kites capable of lifting any given weight into the air. If a man and his chair, why not a motor and propelling fans? Should this turn out to be the solution of the problem, the flying machine of the future will bear the appearance not of one great bird, as it is commonly figured, but of a flock of little birds, for that is what the photographs of the Bell kite most resemble.

Kipling's navigators of the twenty-first century are made to speak disparagingly of the days when men "flew kites over thorium engines." It looks as if commonplace steam and vapor engines would have to come first. But even that stage is awaited with impatience. We have seemingly accomplished the preliminaries; but who will be the man to make the airship as practicable as the automobile?

PAYING THE DOCTOR.

When a New York dentist was said to have charged Prince Louis $1,000 for filling four teeth, the general comment, public and private, was that the bill was outrageous. The question of doctor's fees is raised again by correspondence printed in a recent issue of the *Medical Record*. A New York surgeon asked $1,000 for an operation for gangrenous appendicitis; the mother of the patient, after consultation with friends, offered $600. The surgeon politely protested, cited testimony of brother physicians to prove that his fee was not unusual, and finally received the remainder. The letter enclosing the last check ran thus:

"My discussion with you has been a friendly one, and so you will not, I am sure, suspect me of any acrimony when I say that my feeling about the present excessive charge of surgeons is a very general one, and the reflection of a sentiment that is

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everywhere one of surprise and dissatisfaction. We do not question your ability, but we feel you make us pay too dear for it."

Indubitably, the writer of the letter just quoted voices a common sentiment; and that sentiment is not without basis in fact. Some surgeons seem to have adopted the motto, "Your money or your life." They charge a patient as much as they think he can possibly afford. This, of course, is refined and intelligent highway robbery. On no theory whatever can it be defended. There are, however, certain principles, perfectly clear, though not always well understood or consistently applied, which explain why a twelve-minute operation for appendicitis may be worth more than five or six hours of tooth-filling.

In the first place, all professional fees are graded according to the standard of living in the community. In small cities and villages the doctors, dentists, and lawyers, often extremely skilful, would never dream of asking what New York doctors and lawyers regularly ask. Surgeons in Poughkeepsie, Albany, New Haven, and Springfield can probably remove the appendix as successfully as any one in New York, but they might charge their richest patients no more than $500, and possibly as little as $150. People who are unfamiliar with New York prices are therefore aghast at the thought of fees which hardened New Yorkers take for granted; and the voices of these strangers within our gates help to swell the chorus of complaint.

Moreover, the position of a doctor differs widely from that of a lawyer or engineer. The latter are not called upon in crises of life and death to give their services freely. Every surgeon of standing devotes much time and energy to hospital practice and cases in which his fees are merely nominal. As a humane man he cannot do less. He expects and his patients expect that he shall partly reimburse himself from those who can afford to pay handsomely. Physicians as a class are not consumed with greed. The vast majority set professional honor and their services to mankind above other considerations, and are content with a moderate return for their labor. A surgeon is entirely warranted in fixing a maximum fee, say, $1,000, or even more, for appendicitis, demanding this maximum from his rich patients, and charging others less, according to his private judgment as to mercy and justice. By this we do not mean that when he saves the life of a millionaire he shall capriciously set his figures in the thousands or tens of thousands, but that his maximum shall be determined seriously and honestly.

In such a reckoning he may often take account of factors which a layman (as the correspondence already referred to shows) might overlook. The element of time, for instance, is often relatively unimportant. A physician carries a child through an ordinary case of measles in three or four calls, and charges for each call. In a prolonged but not grave illness he may not deem it quite fair to charge rigidly for every call. For a twelve-minute operation for appendicitis he properly asks far more than for the hours spent over measles or mild lingering sickness. The seriousness of the malady, the difficulty and risk of the operation, and the skill and previous medical training required must all be considered. A painful flesh-wound from an accident may take five times as long to heal as an incision for appendicitis; the surgeon may dress it daily for weeks; and yet the flesh-wound may never threaten life itself; and the treatment may be so simple and easy that it demands from the surgeon nothing but attention and average knowledge. An abdominal operation may—thanks to extraordinary special knowledge, acquired at great expense—be so quick and brilliant that, though the patient has literally been snatched from death, he and his friends may imagine that nothing much was the matter. He is subjected to less inconvenience and agony than he might suffer from having four of the most workmanlike gold fillings put in his teeth. The bills, however, should not be the same.

THE FUNCTION OF AN ENDOWED PRESS.

Rumors are current that one of our greatest universities is soon to be endowed with a press; if so, let us hope it will be put to good use, for it would be altogether hasty to assume that a university press is of necessity a blessing, and dangers of the most obvious kind are readily to be foreseen. It may, for one thing, become the servant not so much of learning and education as of the institution it represents; it may be run, in plain words, to advertise the university and to push its graduates. The evil is evident in the gross, but extends far in subtle and demoralizing ramifications. Such a policy would, for instance, incidentally tend to encourage the promiscuous printing of doctors' theses, and foster the spirit of hot-bed forcing that is the chief cause of the immaturity and crudeness for which too much of our American scholarship has made an unfortunate reputation. Closely akin to this is an evil not unknown even to the Pitt and the Clarendon Presses. These institutions enjoy the special advantage of knowing beforehand the subjects to be set for university examinations, and they suborn young scholars whose time might be far better and hardly less remuneratively spent, to prepare text-books for these examinations. With our system this could not so largely be the case; yet who can doubt that text-books and doctors' theses might easily become the chief product of such a press?

There is another danger, even more grave, that requires statement at some length, for it opens up the whole subject of the teaching of literature at our universities. Yet this is no incidental matter, for the press, after all, is the greatest of the teachers of literature. Under the influence of men with much special but little general education, work would probably be published unworthy of a university in its standard of expression. It is perhaps an indirect result of the present extraordinary effort in the teaching of English and literature that both teachers and learners, to say nothing of those who are neither teachers nor learners, have measurably lost sight of what literary expression is; whence their ill success. One of the most deplorable things at our universities is to see men who profess literature, consciously or unconsciously setting before their students the idea that literary expression is an end to be achieved by direct study, and which may be turned to commercial advantage. But literary expression is nothing more than a means to an end: it is the employment of the symbols of written language in the manner most closely adapted to conveying thought. We must learn to think first, and after that learn to convey what we have thought. Most of our teaching, however, is how to express ourselves regardless of the cultivation of the intellect, and this teaching is carried on with such intensity that thought which should be stimulated by literature is, on the contrary, crushed out by it.

Literature under this system tends to become a specialty. The masterpieces of English prose and verse are no longer the sacred repositories of the highest thought of our race, claimed by every educated man as his equal birthright; they are delegated to specialist educators—the term is a fit one—as instruments for technical study and preferment. At many, if not all, of our universities, English literature is already suffering from undiscriminating specialism, and many of those engaged in other pursuits affect an often comforting disdain for literary expression as a matter that concerns some learned colleague, but not themselves. They forget, those who have ever known it, that a clear thought can be crystallized only by a clear expression. And so, to leave generalities and come to particulars, we find that even in the study nearest akin to that of literature, namely, that of history, something distinctly worse than bad style is winked at and, on occasion, encouraged. Is it safe, under such circumstances, to trust a college faculty with a press?

And yet the need for an endowed press is crying. To enumerate all the good purposes it might serve would be to exceed the unavoidable bounds of this ar-

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ticle, and only one will be adverted to, one not generally recognized and yet perhaps most important of all—the production of serious literature at a low price. It is one of the weaknesses of our Anglo-Saxon civilization (for in this matter the argument applies to England even more than to ourselves), that whereas the price of newspapers, of magazines, and of fiction has steadily tended downwards, such has not been the case with what may be described conveniently as serious literature—literature that ranges from poetry through history to philosophy. How seriously our national position is affected may be shown by a comparison with France. That country happily has a standard price of publication, 70 cents a volume, at which the bulk of current literature, both light and serious, is produced. Bourget's latest novel and Henri Houssaye on Waterloo appear on the bookstall side by side and at the same price, and as often as not the good Paris bourgeois purchases the more valuable book. And to say that this is simply because French serious literature is better written than ours is an enormous exaggeration, as may be demonstrated. A few years ago a London publisher set out to produce a translation of the complete works of Nietzsche. The first volume met with little encouragement; the second was accompanied by a slip from the publisher stating that unless the public responded better he would have to abandon the enterprise; the third has never appeared. In France, all of Nietzsche's works have long since been translated, and the least sold had run some years ago into several thousands.

Here we have not a question of style, but of price; not of the positive value of Nietzsche, but of intellectual curiosity. And here we get a rough demonstration that in France, with less than forty millions of people, there are probably from five to ten persons who buy serious books to one in the English-speaking countries with nearly four times the population. If that is so, if it is only approximately so, it is a terrible reproach to our civilization, and it is largely the result of the inflated prices charged for new works of serious literature. It should not be forgotten that the class of the community which buys, or might buy, such books, is one that feels very keenly the difference between paying less than a dollar or from two to six dollars. In Paris the publisher who should raise his price would lose his public; in London or New York the publisher who should lower his price would find the public unprepared and irresponsive. From the publishers there is nothing to hope, for the present, save cheap reprints of works out of copyright, but might not an endowed press, working with steady policy over a course of years, help us? By inflexibly demanding adequate literary expression, by standardizing its prices at a low figure, by giving unknown authors a chance on their merits, by supporting scholars in difficult but little-trodden paths, it might serve a great national purpose, and in time shake the publishers and the public out of the vicious rut into which they have insensibly slipped.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

HAVERFORD, December, 1905.

The experiment of holding a meeting of a learned society in a small town is generally regarded as hazardous, but in the two cases in which the Modern Language Association has tried it—at Charlottesville, Va., and this winter at Haverford, Pa.—the result has been most satisfactory. The total attendance, though smaller than the gatherings in New York, Cambridge, and Baltimore, has been quite up to the average; while the proportion of members actually present at the sessions has been larger than usual, and, most important of all, the opportunities for social intercourse have been better than they ever can be amid the varied distractions of a city. About half of the members, this time, chose to take rooms in the Philadelphia hotels, which can be reached almost as readily from Haverford as from the University of Pennsylvania; the others were comfortably housed in the college dormitories. Meals were served on the grounds, and a fine club-house offered everything that the most exacting taste could require. Reduced railway rates added to the general cheerfulness.

Many of the visitors this year were attracted, no doubt, by the prospect of hearing an address from Professor Gummere, president of the Association for 1905; many, too, were interested in seeing a college so highly esteemed yet so little known. Neither of these expectations was disappointed. The presidential allocution consisted, as had been generally hoped, of an exposition of some of Professor Gummere's views concerning the production of ballads. This kind of poetry, being in its origin essentially a game or an outgrowth of the dance, is naturally dramatic rather than narrative; it portrays a single scene, and develops its theme by a process that is aptly called "incremental repetition." In conflict with this congenital immobility is the world-old love of story-telling, which tends to transform the ballad into a little epic, substituting a complete tale for a self-explanatory situation. A delightful feature of the address was the reading of ballads illustrating the two types.

It is safe to say that few of the outsiders left Haverford without a twinge of envy for those colleagues whose lot is cast in this homelike little college. Beautiful grounds, extending apparently as far as the eye can reach, where the happy professors dwell, untaxed, in a friendly community of their own, enjoying all the pleasures of rural life within easy reach of a great city; adequate but unpretentious buildings; a comfortable endowment, which makes it possible to offer unusual inducements to exceptional men; a sensible administration, a small but well-selected corps of instructors; a choice and not overlarge body of students; a high standard of scholarship, combined with a total absence of vulgar boastfulness and blatant advertising—these advantages make Haverford a model of what the little college should be. Would that more institutions had the same opportunity and could follow the same enlightened policy!

The programme was of evenly good quality. Constant attendants at the Association meetings have noted, from year to year, a marked improvement in the choice of subjects and the presentation of them. There are now none of those intolerable bunglers who do not know what they have written and cannot read their own handwriting; there are few of those enthusiasts who have to be gently plucked by the coat-tail at the expiration of their allotted twenty minutes; and there are not many of those microscopic specialists whose work is too technical to be followed even by a scientific audience. The regulations adopted some years ago prevent crowding and leave plenty of time for debate. Discussion, this year, was abundant and lively, and the repose of somnolent members was full of interruptions. Of the twenty-two papers read, not one could be called feeble; scarce half-a-dozen were really uninteresting—and even these were so well written and so convincingly delivered that the hearers half believed they understood. Six or seven were sufficiently general to entertain any educated public. All the papers but one dealt with literary topics, and that one was of a purely popular character. English literature naturally predominated, but French and German were ably represented, and there was an agreeable sprinkling of other languages. A welcome surprise was the appearance of a lady among the readers. One striking feature of the programme was the size of the Cambridge delegation; nearly half of the speakers were men now or formally connected with Harvard. Equally striking was the absence of any direct offering from Johns Hopkins. We may see in these facts evidence of a notable increase in productivity at Harvard, without (let us hope) postulating a corresponding decline in Baltimore. Contributions were made by twenty-one colleges or universities, scattered across the continent from Montreal to the Pacific Coast; only one, however, came from the South. The papers actually read were divided among fourteen seats of learning.

The two that called forth most comment were "American Speech," by Mr. Leigh R. Gregor of McGill College, and "The Prosody of Walt Whitman," by Prof. F. N. Scott of the University of Michigan. Mr. Gregor took as his starting-point Henry James's address "On the Question of our Speech," and, in the form of a highly amusing dialogue between John Bull and Brother Jonathan, discussed with great sagacity the chief linguistic differences between England and America, dealing impartially with the shortcomings of both; he then considered the possibility of maintaining separate standards for the two countries, and the chances of a final reconciliation through mutual concessions. Professor Scott demonstrated that Walt Whitman's poetry was by no means an impetuous production, but was the fruit of long experiment, thought, and study. Collecting all the poet's utterances about his art, he noted Whitman's belief

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that prose is a more elastic and less conventional form than verse, his susceptibility to large, free movements and rushes of sound, his fondness for the swaying, gliding effects that characterize rhythmic prose. Following his previously published theory that prose rhythm is essentially a combination of pitch variations, while verse rhythm consists in sequences of varied stress, Professor Scott showed that Whitman's prosody "is an attempt to construct with the units of prose rhythm a pattern similar to that which other poets had constructed with the materials of metre." This thesis was illustrated by readings and comparisons. It may be added that Professor Scott evidently does not regard Whitman's creation as likely to have any lasting effect on English poetry. Among the other papers, mention should be accorded to Dr. W. W. Lawrence's "Structure and Interpretation of the 'Widsith,'" a masterpiece of argument and presentation, and Dr. Karl D. Jessen's penetrating study of "Margaret Fuller's Criticism of Goethe."

In 1904 there was presented to the Association the "Report of a Joint Committee, representing the National Educational Association, the American Philological Association, and the Modern Language Association of America, on the subject of a Phonetic English Alphabet." The proposals of this body, though approved as a whole, were criticised in some details, and a committee of five, consisting of Professors Sheldon, Grandgent, Bright, Hempl, and Weeks, was appointed to revise the work. The new committee reported at this meeting, suggesting certain modifications in the alphabet, which make it simpler, more logical, and less divergent from other systems. The report was unanimously adopted; similar action was subsequently taken by the Philological Association, in session at Ithaca. The plan is to urge all makers of dictionaries and text-books to use this alphabet in indicating pronunciation; and some hope is entertained that, as the public gradually becomes accustomed to the phonetic notations, the logical spelling may ultimately replace our traditional orthography. The new alphabet is well adapted to both these ends, being easy, clear, systematic, and not too outlandish in appearance. The prospect for phonetic spelling now seems brighter than ever before. The Association also voted approval of "the proposal to hold an international conference of experts in phonetics for the purpose of considering a uniform method of graphic representation of the sounds of speech."

The president for 1906 is Prof. H. A. Todd of Columbia. The Association has received from President Hadley an invitation to hold its next meeting at Yale.

THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT BALTIMORE.

BALTIMORE, January 4, 1906.

The eighteenth annual meeting of the American Economic Association was held with the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore during the Christmas recess, jointly with the American Political Science Association, and simultaneously with the sessions of the American Historical Association. In large and representative attendance, in sustained interest and spirited discussion, and in general helpfulness to the science and its devotees, the meeting was one of the best in the history of the Association. It is hoped that the social arrangements were found agreeable, and that the opportunities for personal contact and informal intercourse were adequate.

The general plan of the meeting was the selection of five general topics—Economic Theory, Regulation of Railway Rates, Municipal Ownership, Labor Questions, Economic Future of the Negro—and the assignment of one session to the consideration of each such topic. In most cases two papers were submitted, presenting the respective sides of the matter in controversy, which were discussed first by designated persons, and thereafter, to the amount of time available, by the general meeting. On the whole this plan, to which the Association has for some years been steadily drifting, worked admirably. In some instances the issue was drawn too narrowly, and academic calm in at least one instance was replaced by unnecessary warmth. But the discussions were more unified and profitable.

The opening session of the meeting on Wednesday morning, December 27, was devoted to Economic Theory. Prof. Jacob H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins University presented a formal paper on "The Present State of the Theory of Distribution," and this was discussed by Profs. John B. Clark of Columbia University, William M. Burke of Albion College, Charles A. Tuttle of Wabash College, Roswell C. McCrea of Bowdoin College, Frank A. Fetter of Cornell University, and Simon N. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania. After pointing out that the theory of distribution has been the primary endeavor of economic inquiry during the largest part of its systematic pursuit, and briefly outlining the development of the doctrine, Professor Hollander stated that the theory as now current is discredited by two recognized criteria of scientific progress—(a) practicable applicability, and (b) agreement as to fundamental principles. This deficiency is due less to incompleteness of result than to the use of inappropriate method. Three conceivable methods may be employed by the economist in his search for a theory of distribution, conveniently distinguished as: (1) Historical; (2) Metaphysical; and (3) Analytical. Whatever hope may have been entertained as to the usefulness of the historical method in constructing a body of economic doctrine, was born of reaction. The metaphysical method is a mean between closet speculation and dialectical hypercriticism bearing insufficient relation to the concrete facts of economic life. The analytical method, on the other hand, assumes that the details of economic distribution are capable of observation, arrangement, and classification; that when so arranged they reveal certain uniformities, that these uniformities may be formulated as hypotheses, and these hypotheses may be demonstrated as laws. It is the method of positive science capable of application to every field of systematic study other than the purely philosophical disciplines. The successful use of the analytical method by the economist has been delayed by the absence or inadequacy of necessary material required by the deductive student for his actual synthesis and for his ultimate verification; by the inductive investigator for his essential subject-matter. The corrective proposed, therefore, by Professor Hollander is an arrest of further text-book didacticism, an abandonment of hypercritical dialectics, and a reduction of metaphysical speculation, as the exclusive apparatus serviceable in search for the law of economic distribution, to a minor rôle. Measurably in lieu thereof, and largely in connection therewith, was suggested a detailed systematic acquaintance with the actual contemporary subject-matter, as the preparation and equipment for its scientific interpretation.

President Taussig's address on Wednesday evening, on "The Love of Wealth and the Public Service," was a notable departure from the narrower limits of economic theory and practice into the broad field of social philosophy. He undertook to consider the motives that actuate able men in the conduct of large industrial enterprises, and the possibility of enlisting in greater degree the services of such men in the administration of public business. The complex desire for wealth was analyzed into four constituent elements: first, love of ease and comfort; second, desire for distinction; third, the impulse to activity; fourth, the passion for power and mastery. The most potent of these forces, the impulse for achievement and for mastery, finds nothing attractive in the administration of public affairs in consequence of the peculiarities of the political machinery of our own country. Not until our political life offers some reasonable chance of prolonged tenure and substantial power, will it attract men of the needed stamp. Even thereafter, all the elaboration of more effective governmental apparatus will prove useless unless the public really wishes for better government.

As to the ultimate outcome, President Taussig ranged himself unhesitatingly on the side of the angels:

"Our political machinery is improving, and is likely still further to improve. The worship of wealth is diminishing, and the respect for public service is increasing. Men of character and capacity will win, in the long run, the suffrage of the people, and corruption and jobbery will be rebuked. The fundamental virtues are not lacking, and we may base upon them our devices for enlisting high-minded ability, for raising general intelligence, for bettering the working details of government. We may expect that the sphere of public enterprises will be enlarged, as the lessons necessary for the successful conduct of such enterprises are learned. We may hope for greater repression of the selfish motives and the sordid activities, for freer play to noble ambition and public-spirited effort, and not only for a stronger government, but for a better and purer democracy."

The session of Wednesday afternoon was devoted to "Railway Rate Regulation," with Hon. Martin A. Knapp of the Interstate Commerce Commission in the chair. Prof. Hugo R. Meyer of the University of Chicago and Prof. B. H. Meyer of the State Railway Commission of Wisconsin were scheduled to present the opposed sides of the question in issue, and Prof. Frank H. Dixon of Dartmouth, Mr. L. G. McPherson, lecturer on transportation at Johns Hopkins, Prof. Don C. Barrett of Haverford, and Prof. Willard C. Fisher of Wesleyan undertook to discuss the papers. As a matter of fact, the inspiration of environment was overpowering, and the announced

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topic was relatively neglected. "The Chicago Meyer" paid his respects in emphatic terms to the record of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and "the Wisconsin Meyer" prefaced his formal paper by a spirited and direct arraignment of the statements and citations of the preceding speaker. Some such conflict was perhaps inevitable, but the profit of the discussion suffered.

The interest of current affairs was reflected by a joint session on Thursday morning with the American Political Science Association, devoted to "The Case for and against Municipal Ownership." Principal papers were presented by Mr. Frederick C. Howe of Cleveland and Prof. Winthrop M. Daniels of Princeton University. Thereafter a vigorous and competent discussion was carried on by Prof. Leo S. Rowe of Pennsylvania, Prof. John A. Fairlie of Michigan, and Dr. M. R. Maltbie.

Labor questions engaged the attention of the meeting on Thursday afternoon. Prof. H. W. Farnam of Yale presented a quantitative study of the labor movement in new groupings of the statistical data made available by the United States Commission of Labor, and suggested a larger use of diagrammatic apparatus and exhibits in the publications of that body. United States Commissioner of Labor Neill took part in the interesting discussion which followed. The second formal paper of the session was by Prof. Thomas S. Adams of the University of Wisconsin, on the extent and tendency of violence in strikes, and this was entertainingly discussed by a social philosopher in the person of Prof. N. P. Gilman, of Meadville; by an economist, Dr. George E. Barnett, of Johns Hopkins, and by a labor leader, Mr. William B. Prescott, ex-president of the International Typographical Union.

In keen interest and actual substance the closing session of the meeting on Friday morning, devoted to "The Economic Future of the Negro," left nothing to be desired. Mr. Alfred H. Stone of Mississippi and Prof. W. E. B. DuBois of Atlanta University read the principal papers, and Prof. Charles L. Raper, of the University of North Carolina, Mr. Theodore Marburg of Baltimore, Prof. M. B. Hammond of the Ohio State University, and Mr. R. C. Bruce of Tuskegee submitted minor communications. Manifestly here was a group of men qualified in very unusual degree to speak upon the matter under discussion, and, with barely an exception, the papers were positive and acute. But the contrariety of opinion—indeed, the opposition of facts—was so marked as to depress even the most optimistic believer in the possibility of a "solution" of the negro question. On the one hand, the black was shown to be a thrifty, reasonably industrious peasant, whose standard of life rises rapidly under favorable conditions; and, on the other hand, he was characterized as a besotted degenerate, from whom neither progress nor even stability may be expected. The session was barely rescued from utter agnosticism by requesting the Executive Committee of the Association to consider the propriety of a committee to collect facts bearing upon the industrial position and prospects of the negro.

Two business meetings of the Association were held, at which the constitution was so amended as to replace the overgrown Council, as a governing board, by a somewhat enlarged Executive Committee. The affairs of the Association, as reported by its officers, were found in prosperous condition. Progress was also made in the long-considered plan of further publication activity. Prof. J. E. Jenks of Cornell University was elected to the presidency; and Prof. W. M. Daniels succeeded secretary-treasurer Fetter, whose long and efficient service received appreciative recognition. The association adjourned to meet at Providence, with Brown University, in the Christmas recess of 1906. J. H. H.

Correspondence.

OUR FAULTY MONETARY SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editorial in the current issue of the *Nation* (No. 2115) upon Mr. Schiff's warning is eminently sound and pertinent. Nevertheless, neither it nor Mr. Schiff's remarks, as it seems to me, quite touch the root of the evil, so far as our banking and monetary system is concerned. That evil is inherent in the system as at present constituted. It is undoubtedly true, as you have pointed out, that the recent stringency in the money market is attributable, not to the working of our Sub-Treasury system, bad though that may be, but to the locking up in Stock Exchange speculations of the free loanable capital upon which the commerce of the country is dependent. It is also true that "this autumn's episode" is "a disgrace to a civilized community," and to the banking fraternity in particular.

But what are the bank managers to do? As certainly as the summers come around, does this loanable capital, temporarily freed from use, accumulate upon their hands. They pay interest upon it—with rare exceptions; unwillingly, it may be, but of necessity because their competitors do so. The country bankers, having no use at home for their accumulations, send them to the cities, where they get interest upon their balances at a rate not governed by market conditions as in other countries, but fixed for the entire year. The banks in the smaller cities, being similarly situated as regards the plethora of loanable funds, pass their surplus along to the larger cities; and they in turn deposit theirs with the banks in New York. What, then, should the New York bankers do under these circumstances? Refuse to take the capital on deposit and pay interest upon it? That would be the wise and prudent course, but it is a course they dare not take. Self-interest interposes. The few who perceive the danger are helpless; should they turn away deposits for which their rivals are clamoring, they would injure their own business without relieving the general situation.

This capital—deposits or credit balances, as they call it, or "money," in the parlance of the Street—must be forced into use regardless of the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of withdrawing it when needed for the active commerce of the autumn and winter. If, in their effort to find employment for the "funds" thus committed to their charge, the bankers play into the hands of the millionaire speculators, they are not so blameworthy as it may seem when viewed from without. These speculators are among the very best customers of the banks; they carry the largest balances without interest; they offer the most readily marketable security; they control, directly or indirectly, many sources from which the banks derive profitable business. Moreover, the purpose for which loans upon collateral are negotiated, is not, as a rule, known to the lenders. Even the personality of the borrowers is commonly hidden when brokers are employed. Nor is this all. Much of the borrowing is from individuals, trust companies, insurance companies, and also from banks in other cities. But, whoever the lenders, the pressure comes upon the New York banks, where the credit balances are carried.

From their intimate relation to the financial transactions that pass through their hands, the bankers cannot plead ignorance of what is going on in the field either of legitimate business or of speculation. But individually they are not free agents; the working of the system is more powerful than they are. Collectively, they do not act; the number of independent rival institutions precludes concerted action even for the protection of themselves and the general public. What is needed is radical reform in both our banking and currency systems. As now constituted, our banking system may aptly be compared to a high-pressure boiler under full and steadily increasing duty, but without a safety-valve. Such a safety-valve would be afforded by a bank currency like that of the Canadian banks. By contracting automatically when commerce slackens, it would put pressure upon the banks at the season when it is needed, thus preventing in large measure the excessive accumulations that are now such a fruitful source of trouble. But, to be stable, such a currency must be issued by large institutions under stringent provisions as to redemption, and careful supervision in other respects; to work smoothly and efficiently it calls for branch banking. It thus involves a sweeping change in our present system—if system it can be called—of several different kinds of banking institutions, all pushing each other into more or less unsound practices, but pulling apart and forcing disaster when a crisis becomes imminent.

Commenting editorially upon Mr. Schiff's address, the Chicago *Record-Herald* remarks, concerning proposed remedies, that "the differences of the experts are very perplexing to the lay mind." The cause of these differences is that most of the bankers, few of whom are really experts on these matters, are blinded by self-interest or fear. Therefore, poor makeshift propositions are put forward, though fathered and supported by weighty names. Even those who see clearly what should be done assert that it is hopeless to try for it, since the country bankers, to a man, are set against branch banking. There is force in the argument they adduce, that no system is proof against the consequences of bad management; but a bad system, such as that we now have, compels wrong practices, which under a good system would as inevitably be discouraged. Frederick W. Gookin.

Chicago, January 14, 1906.

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THE CANAL AND THE COST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the Panama Canal is opened for traffic in ten years, and has then cost us, including interest, which is already running, $500,000,000—which seems not an improbable amount—then at four per cent. the interest on the cost will amount to $20,000,000 annually. If the average charge for each vessel passing through is $4,000—about that of the Suez Canal—it will require the passage of 5,000 ships a year to meet interest charges alone. If $6,000 a ship is required, it would still require 3,333 vessels a year to meet interest charges. Is any such amount of traffic supposable?

Moreover, the cost of maintenance cannot of course be estimated at less than $1,000,000, more probably at $2,000,000; and to meet this alone, at an average of $6,000, would require the passage of 333 vessels.—Yours, H. A. P.

Cambridge, Mass., January 13, 1906.

Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in preparation 'Hawaiian Yesterdays,' by Dr. Henry M. Lyman of Chicago, a missionary's son, who now presents his boyish recollection of island life.

In the course of the present month Messrs. Bell & Sons will publish 'The Itinerary in Wales of John Leland in or about the years 1536-1539.' The editor is Miss L. Toulmin Smith, who is already well known to students of English on both sides of the Atlantic. In this volume are gathered together and arranged the portions relating to Wales scattered through four parts of Leland's works; the place-names are identified, and there is a map and a full index. The book is intended to form part of a new edition of Leland's celebrated 'Itinerary through England and Wales,' upon which Miss Smith is still engaged.

In the *Globus*, R. Lehmann-Nitzsch announces that Mr. E. Antran of Buenos Ayres recently found in the heart of the Argentine Republic twenty-eight unknown letters of Alexander von Humboldt. They were addressed to Bonpland, and have been handed down in that naturalist's family as a portion of his literary remains. They are to be published in the near future in connection with the posthumous writings of Bonpland. A preliminary report on the whole find has been made public by Ed. L. Holmberg.

The Royal Association of Sciences in Copenhagen and the Academy of Sciences in Berlin have agreed jointly to prepare a catalogue of the Greek and Latin medical writers. The ulterior purpose is to submit this to the International Association of Academies with a view to having a complete and scientific edition of all the medical works of classical antiquity prepared and published. The next convention of the International Association, to be held in Vienna in 1907, at Whitsuntide, is expected to take definite action in the matter.

After the present year the works of Heinrich Heine will no longer be protected in France, where copyright extends fifty years after the death of an author. The *Gaulois* declares that interest in Heine is still growing in France, and the demand for his works now greater than ever.

Probably the first edition of Goethe's poems to be issued in Japan made its appearance recently in Tokio from the publishing house of K. Nakane, in a volume of 244 pages, embellished with a portrait of Goethe and a reproduction of the well-known picture, "Goethe's Familie." The author is Tadao Hashimoto, already known for an early edition of Heine and for his advocacy of the study of German literature; and, besides the poems, in the German letter, there are translations of some forty-eight of Goethe's best-known ballads and lyrics, with explanatory notes in Japanese. The translations, in Japanese verse, do not, of course, satisfy the metrical conditions of the original. In his introduction Mr. Nakane presents the question, What is the character of the poetry of Goethe which has been so much praised? For his part he finds in the poems of the German Olympian unusual vigor, fulness of life, an earnest spirit that is always a confession of the soul, a mysterious strength and calmness that yields sound like that of music, abundance of touch with human life, simplicity of style, and a form that is in strict accord with the content. The editing of Goethe's works, Mr. Nakane says, was a labor of love, undertaken for the youth of Japan, who are as yet quite unfamiliar with the poet. There is also a preface to the work by a friend of the editor, who styles himself *Chiku-fu*, or "The Wind in the Bamboo," and who compares Goethe to a kettle into which all kinds of metal have been poured and melted to effect his unique genius. The Japanese, says *Chiku-fu*, are very fond of Heine, whom they know rather well, but he is only a sort of *shuju* or "Confucius-disciple" of Goethe, and between Heine and his master there is as much difference as between earth and heaven.

Two more volumes in the Arthur H. Clark Co.'s reprints, "Early Western Travels, 1748-1846," embrace three interesting narratives; the longest, Gregg's 'Commerce of the Prairies (1802-1839),' being also the most valuable—indeed, a well-established classic, accurate and well written. This author describes the barbarous New Mexican sport of *correr el gallo*, which still survives (or did up to the civil war) in our Southern States as "gander-pulling." Gregg has also a brief section on the Mormon settlement in Independence, Mo., but has most to tell of the aborigines and the fauna of their country as observed by a veteran trader of the Santa Fé Trail. A New Bedford Quaker, George W. Ogden, relates his experiences as tourist and sojourner in the Ohio Valley, 'Letters from the West, 1821-23.' The common sights of slavery on the Southern side of the river draw from him strong expressions of humane displeasure as well as of pride in his sect's testimonies against slavery; he devotes a closing section to this subject. W. Bullock, an intelligent Englishman, keen for natural curiosities for his museum, supplies a 'Journey from New Orleans to New York, 1827,' which has for its chief feature (though of minor interest) a description of Niagara Falls.

Various causes have delayed our noticing three sumptuous folio volumes which we owe to the courtesy of the State Department of Mexico, entitled 'Mexico: Its Social Evolution.' Plain "History" would have answered as well as "Evolution," as the publishers (Mexico: J. Ballescá & Co.) seem to feel. The original composition was in Spanish, in 1899, for the close of the century; and the retrospect has been thought worth translating into English. It was popularly conceived and entrusted to many hands, as is usually the case in such album works; and this involved some repetitions, witness the Mexican war, to which there is a return under "The National Army." The most valuable chapter we judge to be that on "The Public Treasury," so large a factor in Mexican history of the past half century; and with it we should couple the chapter on "National Education," though it is one of the most poorly translated. The work was set up and printed in Barcelona, and while literal errors are comparatively few, a faulty idiom throughout makes reading difficult, to say nothing of the Spanish literary habit, which manifests itself in needless abstractions and verbiage. The lack of a general index is to be regretted. There are two folding maps of Mexico, one for her railroads, and a great profusion of process illustrations of a high order, including numerous portraits. From these last and from the architectural views Americans may acquire a chastening respect for the civilization of our Southern neighbor.

The books on Egypt written since the great Napoleon virtually rediscovered it, and his savants for the first time tried to describe scientifically its physical features and archæological treasures, would fill a large library. Some of them, like Eliot Warburton's 'Crescent and the Cross,' were written under the inspiration of an enthusiastic afflatus which gave a rosy color to the most commonplace scenes; but others, like H. W. Dunning's 'To-day on the Nile' (James Pott & Co.), were mere handbooks of travel. In a dahabiyeh, which was the only vehicle for travel on the Nile half a century ago, and which is still the most delightful, a traveller may dream away three months of delicious leisure and intellectual enjoyment while covering the same length of river as is ploughed in a fortnight by a steamer filled with a noisy, unsympathetic crowd of tourists, who are hurried from temple to temple and from tomb to tomb by a dragoman with a kurbash. The traveller in the dahabiyeh will take beside his Wilkinson, Maspero, and Budge, his Warburton and Prime and Amelia Edwards; but the tripper on the Cook boat or the Anglo-American steamer cannot do better than prepare for his journey by reading Mr. Dunning's popular but scholarly chapters on Egyptian history and mythology; and, as he rushes about, he will have no more than leisure enough to supplement and even to correct the harangue of the dragoman by Mr. Dunning's concise description of what he will see, for the physical fatigue of exhausting Egypt in a fortnight leaves neither time nor power for thought.

'Animal Heroes,' by Ernest Thompson Seton (Scribners), gives the histories of a cat, a dog, a pigeon, a lynx, a rabbit, two wolves, and a reindeer. The stories are more or less composite, the author says, but are each founded on the life of a veritable animal hero. "A hero is an individual of unusual gifts and achievements.

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Whether it be man or animal, this definition applies; and it is the histories of such that appeal to the imagination and to the hearts of those who hear them." Mr. Seton thus defines his subject and his literary aim. Probably few readers will unsettle their enjoyment of his stories over the question whether it is he or Mr. Burroughs that is right about the existence of animal heroes, or whether they see his animals in the light of his fancy or that of common day. He does touch the heart and the imagination, his methods are not sensational, his literary art is excellent, his knowledge is wide. Of all the modern nature students in whom the human interest in wild creatures dominates the merely scientific interest, he is, in Mr. Burroughs's opinion, the best, though with "romantic tendencies" that must be remembered when one reads his works as natural history.

Ernest Crosby's 'Garrison the Non-Resistant' (Chicago: The Public Publishing Co.) is in effect one of the now rather numerous minor biographies of that philanthropist. It is not, however, structurally organic; one part has, avowedly, been published before, and probably several. Thus, chapter v. is on "The Civil War," but also chapter x. is on "Garrison and the Civil War." There is much desultory discussion of whether war was the best way to end slavery, and of the politico-social results of the war at the South, disfranchisement, lynching, etc. This gives the little volume the aspect of a tract, but, if not strictly pertinent, it is often suggestive, as, conspicuously, the story of the Beast book at page 108. In the personal narrative there are several minor errors of fact, and at page 16 it is implied that the doctrine of immediatism was first urged by Garrison in the *Liberator* instead of in the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*. The apocryphal story of slapping a soldier on the back (p. 85) shows a defective criterion of testimony; slapping any one on the back was not Mr. Garrison's style. The point of view selected by Mr. Crosby is perfectly just, being fundamental; but, as a whole, his presentation cannot compare with that other, also of Tolstoyan non-resistant provenance, Tchertkoff and Holah's admirable 'Short Biography,' published in London in 1904.

Miss Ella Noyes, who contributed an excellent volume on Ferrara to the "Mediæval Towns" series, has written 'The Casentino and its Story' (London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton), a book in which picturesque description and historical reminiscence are pretty equally blended. The Casentino, it need hardly be said, is that beautiful region of the upper Arno, shut in by mountains, which abounds in scenery, old towns and castles, and in rich associations. Vallombrosa looks down into the valley on the west, La Verna, the rock of St. Francis, guards it on the east. Dante, who spent part of his exile here, immortalized the brooks of the Casentino in one line of "Hell," and fought in the battle at Campaldino. Here the Counts Guidi, Dante's friends and patrons, upheld the Ghibelline cause. Here St. Romualdo founded the first monastery of the Camaldoli. Miss Noyes describes all this, and much more, with enthusiasm. She has an unusual talent for making pen pictures of scenery vivid, and she seems to have overlooked none of the literary, artistic, or historical memorabilia of the valley. If at times her material is spun rather thin, that is a defect inevitable in works of this kind. The illustrations, by Miss Dora Noyes, really add to the interest of the book. There are twenty-five full-page sketches in color, and as many more line drawings which give the true Tuscan quality of scene, of tone, and of peasant life.

The Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde) publishes a very beautiful collotype reproduction of the Bodleian manuscript of Jerome's Latin version of the Chronica of Eusebius. The editor, Mr. John Knight Fotheringham of King's College, London, has written an Introduction and four critical appendices, showing most careful examination of the manuscript and thorough comparison of it with all others known to exist. Two other appendices, by Dr. R. L. Poole and Mr. C. H. Turner, add greatly to the interest of the publication. The appendix of Mr. Turner is a bibliographical study of Bishop Jean du Tillet of Meaux (d. 1570).

The December Bulletin of the New York Public Library contains a notable list of its works relating to woman in the several manifestations of her training, talents, occupations, and aspirations. One subdivision consists of a 'Dictionnaire de la Femme: Encyclopédie manuel des connaissances utiles à la femme' (Paris, 1877); an 'Illustrirtes Konversations-Lexikon der Frau' (Berlin, 1900); and a 'Dictionnaire des Précieuses' (Paris, 1856).

We have already announced the University of Chicago's two new periodical ventures, *Classical Philology* (quarterly) and the *Classical Journal* (monthly, November to June). The prospectuses now before us show in the editorship a very distinguished array of American scholars, impartially distributed among the universities, together with Prof. Wallace M. Lindsay of St. Andrews, Scotland. The managing editor is Edward Capps. We are told that "in so far as *Classical Philology* shall fulfil its object, it may . . . be looked upon as an offshoot of the *American Journal of Philology*, and as a witness to [Professor Gildersleeve's] influence upon American classical scholarship." The *Classical Journal* will be directed by the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, and will meet the wants of teachers. The managing editors are Gordon J. Laing and Arthur Fairbanks at the University of Chicago.

The Balkan conditions were graphically described by Mr. James Bryce in a recent address before the Balkan Committee, of which he has been president for three years. From the fact that he spent some weeks last autumn in Macedonia and Bulgaria, additional force was given to his statements. He said that there was no open war nor massacres on such a scale as those of two years ago, but in many districts isolated murders are frequent. "At present, no native's life or property is safe." As to the success of the new scheme for financial control, he could not express a confident opinion; but unless constant pressure is exerted to carry its provisions into effect, it will be of little use. "The local officials will do nothing unless such pressure is steadily applied. Indeed, they can do nothing; for what strikes one on visiting the country is that even the better officials—and sometimes the Turkish officials are honest, well-meaning men—can accomplish little, because they are thwarted in good or compelled to do wrong by orders from Constantinople." He emphasizes the absolute need of doing everything to induce the Christian races to abandon their guerrilla warfare, which is lamentable in itself and ruinous to their common cause, and profitable only to the Turkish Government, which does its best to foment the strife. If conditions are not improved it will be impossible to prevent a war between Bulgaria and Turkey.

The little mountain principality of Montenegro has entered upon a new era in her eventful history. Prince Nicholas has abolished the autocratic and patriarchal system of government which he inherited and has administered for forty-six years, and has substituted in its place a parliamentary system. In a proclamation issued last October, the opening paragraph of which asserts that "every man belonging to civilized society should be a free citizen," he calls upon "my gallant people" to select Deputies: "Let them assemble around me; I shall teach them their duties, and by our united action we shall bring about a great development of the liberties and prosperity of our country." On November 27 there was elected one Deputy from each of the fifty-six military districts and four towns; the Prince reserving to himself the nomination of six ministers of state and three ecclesiastical Deputies, representing the Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Mussulman churches. Various reasons have been assigned by friendly and hostile critics for this extraordinary step on the part of the Prince.

The main causes of the present anti-foreign movement in China have been ascribed to Japan's victory over a European Power, the influence of Chinese students educated in Japan, and the leniency, interpreted as a sign of weakness, with which our Government has treated the boycott. A British merchant who has closely studied the situation during a recent business tour through the leading cities of China, calls attention (in a letter to the London *Times*) to another significant way in which the movement is being fostered by the Pekin authorities. The Dowager Empress not long ago issued an edict cancelling the old curriculum for the official examinations, and ordering examinations in Western learning in their stead, without, however, providing for the details of such a vital change in the established order of things. The result is that all those Chinese men of letters who, in the ordinary course of things, would have become officials, are deprived of their careers, and are converted into a mass of discontented men spreading all over the Empire. In addition, some 200 printing-presses, formerly employed in printing text-books and educational matter under the old system, are idle, and the employees are added to the malcontents. The writer points out that this state of things strongly resembles that produced by the reformed edict which preceded the Boxer outbreak of 1900.

Mlle. Dosne, the sister-in-law and heiress of Thiers, has presented to the Institute the famous historic Hôtel Thiers in Paris, together with the beautiful gardens surrounding it on the Place St. Georges, with the proviso that it is to be used as a

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library of historical writings. The venerable lady, who is known as the editor of Thiers's 'Notes et Souvenirs,' has already established the "Fondation Thiers" for the stimulation of university students. The new gift is the famous structure that on two occasions, in 1870 and in 1871, was about to be demolished by the Paris rabble, and was saved only by being declared to be "national property." When the Commune was crushed, the demolition was already under way, and Thiers had a good deal of trouble in restoring the structure.

—Last July a weekly journal of reputable standing and wide circulation printed in facsimile, with an accompanying article, a part of a *Cape Fear Mercury* of June 3, 1775, containing resolutions purporting to be those adopted by a convention held in Mecklenburg County, N. C., on May 20, declaring independence of the crown of Great Britain. At first sight the article, written by one unknown among writers on history, S. Millington Miller, seemed a bit of midsummer madness, intended to amuse by an historical fiction. The tone of it, however, and the number of documents reproduced, carried weight, and aroused much interest in the South, where the tradition of such a convention and declaration has persisted for a century. The *Mercury* was sought by many, and large sums were offered for it if proof of its being genuine could be furnished. Finally, the Historical Commission asked Mr. Worthington C. Ford, head of the manuscripts division in the Library of Congress, to study the newspaper held by Miller. His report was that the document was a forgery, a very clever one in its general manufacture, and that the evidence presented in support of it by Miller could not bear examination. It is hardly possible that a sale will now be made, but it is unfortunate that some steps cannot be taken to impound such a forgery and punish the forger.

—'The Bird Watcher in the Shetlands, with Some Notes on Seals—and Digressions,' by Edmund Selous (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a summer continuation, made two years later, of the spring studies of little-known Northern sea-birds recorded in the author's 'Bird-Watching.' Mr. Selous has his own place among naturalists, by virtue of his unfamiliar fields, his originality of thought, and his power of giving to truly scientific matter the medium of a strong and cultivated literary style. This last distinction may well belong to a wilderness-lover and book-lover, whose idea of an earthly paradise is "the veldt or Brazilian forests, or Lapland or the Spanish Marisma, with the British Museum library round the corner." A close student of nature and of Darwin, Mr. Selous is a kind of scientific free-thinker, a zoölogist without gun or cabinet, who goes afield prepared to see and to think. He unites with faithfulness of observation considerable boldness of speculative theory. He finds going on among individuals of certain species gradual change and differentiation, which he regards as stages of evolution; for instance, he believes that the influence of sexual selection is modifying the plain, dark Arctic skua into a beautiful light-colored bird. He maintains that the same influence has evolved the brilliant color of the buccal cavity of several Northern species, through the nuptial habit, common to both sexes, of opening wide the beak. He argues, too, for a process of inter-sexual selection—the male, also, exercising choice—in species of which the sexes closely resemble each other, or of which the sexes differ markedly and are both handsome. His studies of a guillemot chick and of the play and repose of seals are delightful, and show how a naturalist may have sympathy and imagination, yet refrain from too subjective an "interpretation." Altogether, the book commends itself for unusual suggestiveness and interest.

—'Daniel Webster, the Expounder of the Constitution,' is the title of a volume by Everett P. Wheeler (G. P. Putnam's Sons). It is at the same time a memorial by an enthusiastic professional admirer of Webster, and a convenient manual for any one who wishes to get in a small compass a view of Webster's career as expounder. Of the importance of the part he played in the development of our constitutional system there cannot be two opinions, and he will always share with Marshall the fame of having laid the foundations on which our existing régime has been built. By taking in their order the leading cases in which he was engaged, Mr. Wheeler is able to direct the reader's attention to all the great stages in Webster's forensic career, and bring out his extraordinary gifts and industry, as they reveal themselves to the sharpest of all critics—those of his own profession. Besides being a great Constitutional lawyer, he was a great publicist in any field to which he turned his mind, and no doubt a companion monograph equally striking, to those familiar with the ground, might be made from his diplomatic papers. Mr. Wheeler seems to think that as a statesman, also, his fame is or ought to be no less high than in either of the two more restricted fields, and he appears to believe that the Seventh of March speech illustrated only Webster's devotion to ideals, just as his argument in the Dartmouth College case illustrated his mastery of Constitutional law. This is not the common opinion, and not even Mr. Wheeler's zeal can make us believe that it will become so. We get here into the most contentious of all political arenas—that of a country brought to the verge of a civil war by a great historical abuse intrenched in its law and Constitution. Mr. Wheeler may be right in thinking that Webster's ideas about slavery were not essentially different from the very conservative views originally held by Lincoln, but Webster's conservatism helped slavery, while Lincoln's discovered a means to destroy it; Webster lost us the road, while Lincoln found it for us again. In great crises a public man's disposition is often of more importance than his ideas.

—'The Civil Service and Patronage' (Longmans, Green & Co.) is the title of a careful and useful historical study by Carl Russell Fish. The problem of civil-service reform has been treated not from the standpoint of expediency, but by giving fully the development of policy and practice as to patronage and the civil service, from the foundation of the Government to the present day. A final chapter is devoted to the present status of the civil-service reform movement. Not enough attention has been paid to the long agitation which preceded the adoption of the new system, and we do not clearly make out whether the author's examination should lead us to think that the vast number of unclassified positions will be brought within the rules by the natural progress of events, or that they are, under the operation of a natural law of politics, to remain "spoils." The considerations bearing on this are certainly important, both practically and historically, but they are not often adverted to. That the reform should have had the great success we see, although the agitation was devoid of wide popular backing, the author attributes to its inherently democratic character, and also to the fact that it is essentially a change in the direction of business-like management, which he thinks a feature of all American life to-day as compared with what was American fifty years ago. The old colonial founders knew what was a good civil service, and that it involved established tenure, by the instinct of a governing class of inherited traditions. We know it, because we are all more or less versed in business methods. Jackson and his cohorts, between the two periods, were barbarian hordes, who swept away the earlier civil service, and established the spoils system in government as barbarians establish it everywhere. If this view is correct, the optimist will look forward to all the unclassified offices being brought within the system; the pessimist, however, who thinks the root of our barbarism to be in universal suffrage (also a product of the middle period), will not be convinced until he sees it done.

—In 'Madame Geoffrin, her Salon and her Times,' by Janet Aldis (London: Methuen; New York: Putnams), we find a number of entertaining episodes and anecdotes concerning literary or other notabilities of eighteenth-century France compiled from the usual well-known sources mentioned in the bibliography, with the strange omission, however, of Sainte-Beuve. The personality of Madame Geoffrin is, indeed, almost obscured here and there, as we try to follow her in the throng of her guests, whom she admittedly ruled, directed, and even controlled with perhaps more adroitness than any of her rivals. Much care has been given to the coördination of events into, as it were, a moving picture of the time; and some of the chapters, such as the vicissitudes that befell the 'Encyclopédie' (ch. x.) and the imprisonment of Marmontel (ch. xiii.) are conducted with spirit and humor. The estimate of Grimm is somewhat inadequate and cold, for the Gallicized German proved his real worth in many delicate and trying circumstances. Revision by a trained French hand would have reduced errors of detail. *Maréchals* (p. xiii.) is neither English nor French; *blonde et blanc* (p. 37), *Harengs fraiscs* (p. 72), *devoté* (p. 87), *à dimanche* (p. 101), *cette homme n'est bon pas qu'à manger du veau* (p. 212) might be deemed errors in proof-reading, did we not find (p. 172) a passage which seems to indicate the author's belief that *quinconce* is French for "quince-tree." One may note that she makes no remark on the fact that the social power of women was never more gladly accepted than in the age which gave such influence the sanction of consent, not of legislative enactment.

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—The German translation (by Richard Palleske) of the book on 'Iceland at the Beginning of the Twentieth Century,' by the Icelandic scholar and member of the Althing, Valtyr Gudmundsson, has, thanks to the difference in time of appearance, certain advantages over its original, even for those who read Danish with the same ease as German. The author gives here, in about 160 pages, a brief, but fairly exhaustive and profusely illustrated, account of Iceland's status at the beginning of the present century, with a synopsis of the development, during the last century, in population, public life, education, literature and art, finances, industries, means of communication, sanitary conditions, and charities. To this are added samples of Icelandic prose and poetry in German translation, as well as some hints for travellers in Iceland. Dr. Gudmundsson was the prime mover of that amendment in the Icelandic Constitution of 1874 which was finally adopted in the year 1903, changing the seat of the minister for Iceland from Copenhagen to Reykjavik. Iceland is a vast and barren country, but a large part of that lack of energy which seems to be characteristic of a majority of its population, must doubtless be ascribed to the unhappy conditions under which the people have lived, subject to the will of a foreign ruler and nation, who, when they have not been bent upon exploiting the country, as was the case in the eighteenth century, had only a slight understanding of and interest in the needs of the inhabitants. It is, therefore, interesting to note what progress the country has made since, in 1874, it obtained a sort of semi-independence, and was thus enabled to take such measures within its means as were most likely to advance the material and intellectual welfare of the people. Roads and bridges have been built, schools and hospitals have been erected, telephones have been introduced, the steamship connection with the outside world has been regulated, and a cable connection with Europe is in a fair way of being brought about. The population of the island was, in 1901, about 80,000, showing a considerable gain during the last decade, due to the fact that the emigration to America has almost ceased. There are in America (chiefly in Manitoba and North Dakota) about 20,000 Icelanders, who have here several churches and newspapers of their own.

SIR WEMYSS REID'S MEMOIRS.

Memoirs of Sir Wemyss Reid, 1842-1885. Edited, with an Introduction, by Stuart J. Reid. With portrait in photogravure. Cassell & Co. 1905. Pp. xxxvi., 396.

Wemyss Reid was notable as a literary man, a biographer, and a writer of fiction. But his Memoirs are chiefly important as those of the editor of the Leeds *Mercury*, a powerful paper of the moderate Liberal school in a stirring time. He flourished in what was perhaps the palmiest epoch of British journalism, when the editor of a great journal himself directed its policy and was a statesman of the pen, not a mere organist or the manager of a Yellow concern.

The Leeds *Mercury* was the property of the Baines family, a house memorable in its way. Edward Baines the first was a young printer whose gifts the original proprietor of the journal had recognized with the best results. Edward Baines the second, who afterwards edited the paper, was a politician as well as an editor. He sat in Parliament for Leeds, but lost his seat through the fanaticism of Prohibitionists, who, enraged at his moderation, voted against him, and as a result got a local brewer elected in his place. The Baines family were Liberals of the moderate school, Nonconformists and Puritans. As Puritans, they showed their faith by excluding from their paper, no doubt at a considerable sacrifice, betting news and theatricals. If their example in excluding betting news had been followed, the country might have been saved from one of its worst pests. The exclusion of theatricals was clearly a Puritan error. The theatre must live and have its influence. It is for the press to take care that its influence shall be moral.

Wemyss Reid was the son of a clergyman at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. He was sent to a school in Scotland, a circumstance to which we owe a charming little picture of a Scotch Sabbath (p. 6):

"It was on Sunday, however, that the full severity of the Scotch Puritanism of that day made itself felt in my inmost soul. Oh, the dreary monotony of those Sabbaths at St. Andrews! The long, long service and yet longer sermon in the forenoon, the funereal procession of the congregation to their homes, the hasty meal, consisting chiefly of tea and cold, hard-boiled eggs, which took the place of dinner, and the return within a few minutes to the kirk, where the vitiated atmosphere left by the morning congregation had not yet passed away. Even when the second service had come to a close, the solemnities of the day were not ended, for the Sunday-school met in the late afternoon, and remained in session for a couple of hours.

"But it was not the public services, terrible though these were, that formed the most depressing feature of Sunday in St. Andrews; it was the rigid discipline which pervaded her home life. My grandfather, I believe, was looked upon as being somewhat lax in his religious views, and he was undoubtedly more liberal—perhaps one might say more advanced—than many of his neighbors. Yet even he had to render homage to the universal law. So when Sunday came round, the blinds were closely drawn, lest the rays of the sun should dissipate the gloom befitting the solemn day, whilst no voice in the household was raised above a sepulchral whisper. Lucky for me was it that I was sent to bed early, and that thus the horrors of the Sabbath were in my case abbreviated. The older members of the family sat in a silent semicircle round the smouldering fire, each holding, and some possibly reading, a book, the suitableness of which for use at such a time was beyond question. The Bible, the metrical version of the Psalms, and one or two volumes of discourses by divines of undoubted orthodoxy, formed the only literature recognized on these occasions. For myself, I had brought with me from home a copy of the delightful, though now-forgotten, book called 'Evenings at Home,' and my Sabbatical sufferings were intensified by the sight of this volume on a high bookshelf, where it remained beyond my reach from Saturday night till Monday morning."

Reid was at first put as clerk into a commercial house; but his aspirations were literary, especially journalistic. They were fulfilled. He became a reporter and a writer at the same time; then editor of the Preston *Guardian*, and at last of the Leeds *Mercury*. As a reporter he made a slip which might have been serious in reporting a speech of Lord Russell on the American civil war. Russell said that in the New World was seen that which had been so often seen in the Old World—a struggle, on the one side for independence, and on the other side for power. The reporter, being rather dazed, misconstrued the symbol for independence and made Russell say: "A struggle on the one side for empire and on the other for power." Fortunately, the misreport made nonsense. Gladstone's slip, which also occurred in a speech at Newcastle, might otherwise have been doubled.

The member of the Baines dynasty on whom the editorship of the *Mercury* naturally devolved, became a Plymouth Brother, or, as a lady by a slip of the tongue called him, "a Yarmouth Bloater." He deemed editorship inconsistent with his religious profession, and Weymss Reid was taken in his place.

As the district organ of moderate Liberalism, the Leeds *Mercury* collided with the extreme Radical party, then headed by Mr. Chamberlain, whose principles the Tories compared, without much exaggeration, to those of Jack Cade. The first encounter was in the case of the Sheffield election (p. 210):

"At Sheffield a candidate came forward in the extreme Radical interest, whose speeches attracted some notice in Yorkshire, though they passed unobserved by the larger public beyond. This was Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, who now made his first attempt to win Parliamentary honors. Up to that moment I had only known Mr. Chamberlain as a young Birmingham politician, who was fond of saying things both bitter and flippant, not only about his political opponents, but about the older members of his own party. He had made himself one of the fuglemen in the cry raised against Mr. Forster, towards whom he seemed to entertain a feeling of almost personal antipathy. At Sheffield he made himself conspicuous by his sneers at Mr. Gladstone and almost all the recognized leaders of Liberalism. His own political opinions appeared to be based upon a crude and intolerant Radicalism of the Socialistic type. He evidently believed that promises of material benefits would enable him to win the support of the mass of the electors, and he conceived also that the best method of displacing his seniors in the party of which he was a member was to assail them with a rather coarse invective."

Mr. Chamberlain was then forming in each of the cities a Radical caucus to control the local politics of his party and nominate its candidate for Parliament; Birmingham being the centre of the whole, and the constructor of the Machine being its master, into whose hands the representation of the cities would thus have come. The extension of this mechanism to Leeds inevitably brought on a struggle between a master of the caucus and the editor of the organ of moderate Liberalism, in which Reid seems to have pretty much held his own. He was evidently a man of force, as well as of principle.

A special object of Reid's admiration as a type of moderate Liberalism was W. E. Forster, a man unquestionably of high principle and of solid qualities, prevented, perhaps, from rising to the highest place by his extreme want of social tact and uncouthness of manner. Forster, by taking a middle course on the subject of national education, had incurred the political hostility of Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Morley, who were allies, as might be gathered, by negative evidence at least, from some passages of Mr. Morley's 'Life of Gladstone.'

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Wemyss Reid states positively that the *Pall Mall Gazette*, edited by Mr. Morley, became virtually the mouthpiece of Mr. Chamberlain. It is very unlikely that Mr. Morley would have allowed the journal of which he was the brilliant editor to become anybody's mouthpiece but his own; still more that he would have allowed it to become anything like the instrument of an intrigue of a member of the Government against a colleague who was desperately struggling against disaffection in Ireland. We are to have some day a further instalment of Reid's Memoirs, with revelations of certain phases in the annals of the Liberal party which may be expected to throw light on the dark subject of the extrusion of Forster from the Cabinet.

Of John Morley, Reid says (p. 283):

"The charm of John Morley's manner, and the brightness of his talk, have been felt and acknowledged by all who have been brought into contact with him, and it would be superfluous on my part to say anything about his literary reputation. But I have always felt that neither his fine gifts nor his peculiar temperament were suited for the rough and tumble of political warfare. I have felt this whether I have been, as has often happened, marching behind him in thorough unison with his opinions, or, as has also occurred at times, directly opposed to him and to his policy."

Reid was perhaps not alone in this opinion. But the answer is that the "rough-and-tumble" element is sufficiently large to bear the infusion of a little high morality even in a philosophic form.

If Forster was Reid's demigod, Gladstone was his god. He has given us astonishing proofs of the great man's powers as a popular—it would be profane to say stump—speaker. At the election of 1880, Gladstone ran for Midlothian, which became the scene of a miraculous display of his oratorical powers. But his party at Leeds elected him there also, that in case of his rejection at Midlothian he might have a seat. He afterwards came to thank Leeds, and there spoke to an audience of thirty thousand people, crowded into a temporary building literally to suffocation, so that holes had to be broken in the roof to give them air. The hubbub was deafening (p. 297):

"But suddenly Mr. Gladstone raised his hand, and it was almost as if a miracle had happened. In an instant there was a deathlike silence in the hall, and every man in it seemed to be holding his breath. The speaker's voice rang out, clear and musical as of old, and it reached to the furthest corners of the mighty apartment. But he had not got further than the conventional opening words when his audience seemed to go mad with delight. A frenzied burst of cheering, far exceeding that which had welcomed him on his first appearance, proclaimed the joy with which they had heard the voice of the man they adored. Again it was some minutes before Mr. Gladstone was allowed to proceed, but once more his uplifted hand ensured silence, and from that moment until he had reached the end of an hour's speech, every syllable that he uttered was heard distinctly by his thirty thousand listeners. It was, I think, the passionate eagerness of the audience to hear his voice, and their outburst of delight when its notes first fell upon their ears, that formed the most striking feature of that great meeting."

At the public dinner Gladstone was observed, before rising to speak, to cover his face for some time with his hands. Mrs. Gladstone afterwards explained that he had been praying, and that such was his habit. There can be no doubt that religion was to him a real motive-power and a support in all the trying moments of his life.

Other interesting characters appear, among them Cowen, the Radical philanthropist of Newcastle, champion of oppressed nationalities and of all victims of tyranny throughout the world. At Cowen's house Reid met the Italian revolutionists, among them Orsini, to whom Cowen unwittingly supplied the funds for the attempt on the life of the French Emperor. Reid was ravished with Orsini's personal beauty. Cowen was an eccentric man of genius and very eloquent, though he spoke with a Northumbrian burr, which he seems to have cherished as democratic, and which, when he had finished a splendid speech and won loud applause, gave Disraeli an opening for the supercilious remark that he was sorry that the speech, which appeared to have created enthusiasm, was in a language which he did not understand. There can be little doubt that Orsini frightened the French Emperor into going to war for the liberation of Italy—a rare instance of a good end attained by criminal means. The second instalment of the Memoirs, when it comes, is likely to be of political importance.

THE RUSSIAN CRISIS.

Russia and its Crisis. By Paul Miliukov. (Crane Lectures for 1903.) London: T. Fisher Unwin; The University of Chicago Press. 1905.

It is difficult to find words strong enough adequately to express the inestimable value of Professor Miliukoff's book for every one desirous of understanding Russia in the past, the present, and the future. It is hard reading—even hard to grasp as a serious text-book, which is its real character; but it will repay all the study that may be bestowed upon it. It lays bare the historical soul of the country, so to speak, in all its intricate recesses, which are, practically, inaccessible to a foreigner. In the present apparent topsy-turvydom and labyrinth of politics and party-combinations, it offers both the only and the all-sufficient guide, and demonstrates logical sequence, where both logic and sequence would often appear to be utterly lacking, by furnishing the historical clue. Moreover, it is illuminating in the highest degree, because of the apt comparisons instituted at various points between Russian and American conditions; and, being brought down to date, in effect (February 12, 1905), it offers the latest practicable information on general lines which can be required.

The author himself is the best type of modern Russian—learned, liberal, reasonable; neither a violent agitator nor a blind supporter of the autocracy whose inevitableness and gradual development from imperative conditions he so ably sets forth. His careful definition of the two (morally) distinct Russias now in conflict for the control is worthy of especial attention, in contrast with the unsatisfactory vagueness of similar attempts on the part of less well-informed and accurate thinkers. After stating them to be: the Russia of Leo Tolstoy, of the "intellectuals," liberty, the people, the future; and the Russia of Plehve, official, an anachronism deeply rooted in the past, despotism, he explains that Tolstoy's system of Christian anarchism merely stands as the synonym for liberty in general, the negation of absolutism only, not as a system in itself, since the "intellectuals" care little for the Christian element, and no anarchism exists in Russia. What he does not add, in this connection, but what is well worth adding, is, that many Russians who are devoutly attached to Christianity and their national Church and entirely out of sympathy with Tolstoy (except as a great literary man), are loyal adherents of liberal Russia, even to the apparent inconsistency of remaining still, perforce, attached to the hated bureaucracy. It is encouraging, also, for the friends of Russia and of progress in general to have the opinion of such an expert as Professor Miliukoff to the effect that all the much-condemned diseases are mere ailments of growth (which have always existed), and that not one is incurable, any more than are the evils of rapid growth in the United States, which furnish a sort of parallel in many respects.

Nothing in the volume is of more pertinent interest than the consecutive demonstration of the perfectly natural, inevitable development of the autocracy forced upon the infant, adolescent and full-grown state by geographical conditions and the lack of barriers against attacks from without, which rendered a powerful central organization of the government absolutely necessary. Equally instructive is the picture of the essential difference between the Russian and the American type of character, which, under somewhat parallel natural conditions, has led to radically opposite results in the exploitation of resources and their present condition. "A certain amorphousness, a certain plasticity in Russian manners and character," he regards as the chief feature in the national type; and to that, the sole though negative inheritance from the past, he attributes nearly everything, good or bad, which has ever been asserted about the national character, by both foreign and native observers. "A backbone is missing both in Russian virtues and Russian vices," he says, declaring that to its flexibility, its accessibility to every new impression, are due both the good and the bad traits of the national type, and that Russian history has not furnished enough social education to provide the body of social tradition which works out the formulas that may act as stimulus or coercion. There is a lack of continuity in the social tradition.

In discussing the origin, growth, and various currents of "The Nationalistic Idea," our author makes an illuminating comparison, which is invaluable as a clue to general study of Russia and to the cause of its tardy progress.

"Between Russia and other European countries the contrast was not so great at the moment of their first meeting, some centuries ago, as it is perhaps now between Japan and the Europe of to-day. Therefore the contrast between nationalism and foreign culture could not be fought out in Russia in such a rapid and resolute way, and the victory over old tradition could not be so soon and completely won, as would be the case to-day. Instead of that, there followed a long process of compromise and assimilation, which in Russia is even yet not completed."

When Professor Miliukoff undertakes to consider "The Religious Tradition," he approaches the subject from the hostile (or

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at least semi-hostile) point of view frequently adopted by educated Russians, who include the Church in their hearty dislike of existing institutions, and thus sometimes fail to render full justice to that which must, inevitably, in all countries, be understood by a sense other than the purely intellectual. He also fails to bear in mind the parallel conditions and action elsewhere. For example, he refers to the services in the case of illness and so forth as "magic rites and solemn incantations" to expel the evil spirits, which, he says, the village priests perform today exactly as the first bishop of the monastery in Kiev did in the eleventh century. He might have made his comparison stronger (though even less convincing on the "magic" side) by referring to Christ's expulsion of devils as the cause of disease in the New Testament, and to similar services in other Christian churches. He appears to forget, also, that Russia and the Eastern Church are not alone in having adopted and adapted pagan festivals and in their dealings with the ancient pagan gods; and that the Russian Church is no more amorphous in its conception of God and the saints, or no more realistic in its pictorial representations of them, than are other branches of the Christian Church, to which the reader is led to assume (by implication) it is fatally inferior in many of the respects enumerated. It would require more space than is at our command to enter into the matter in the detail which such unfairness—whether voluntary or involuntary—justly demands; but we may characterize the whole presentment of the religious question as resembling the reflection beheld in a skewed mirror. Even the summary of the old attitude toward poverty, the quotations from the writings of an ancient popular theologian, the description of the Church as "a kind of Eternal Life Insurance," could be used with equal justice and effectiveness of any other Christian community; and if the labels were omitted, their origin could not possibly be divined by the keenest experts. Nevertheless, if one is already sufficiently well informed to be able to discriminate, there is much valuable and curious information not readily obtainable elsewhere, to be gleaned from this chapter. For instance, after describing a sect established in the second half of the eighteenth century by "a vagabond dreamer, Euphemius" (Evfimy), including his theory of the land, Professor Miliukoff calls attention to the fact that this fugitive soldier anticipated Count L. N. Tolstoy's doctrine of Christian anarchism by one hundred years.

When he deals with "The Political Tradition" he is on firmer ground, and clearly demonstrates the assertion with which he starts, that the idea cherished by the Russian nationalists, to the effect that autocracy never has changed and is unchangeable, is wholly erroneous. He shows that the theory is of very recent origin; and incidentally he sets forth the facts concerning the successive degradation of the aristocrats and the elevation of the lower classes by which the autocracy was cleverly maintained. This point has not been hitherto presented to the foreign student; if at all, certainly never so lucidly or in so thorough a degree. Arising in necessity for preservation of the State, considered as so impregnable in practice that no legal authority for it was ever sought, or even exists, the autocracy is shown to have become logically impossible as well as unnecessary at the present day. The innumerable lines in which autocracy had come to exercise irresistible authority before it was recently abolished by the Imperial decree, are described, with pertinent instances, judiciously selected, and all the more convincing because they have not been selected (as is too often, obviously, the case with sensational writers on the subject) with an eye solely to exaggerated effect. Incidentally, the whole tangled quarrel about the classical (as opposed to the more modern, scientific) system of education is fully explained.

A chapter on "The Liberal Idea" naturally follows. In it the bureaucracy is traced from its useful and necessary origin to its present position of being generally detested, not only by those outside of it, but by its own progressive members, who would gladly reform it; and the subject is not devoid of lessons for our own parallel bureaucracy, which has developed most of the evils so reprehended by the Russians in their own. In treating of the radical and socialistic ideas which made their appearance, in due time, in Russia, Miliukoff significantly comments: "Russian radicalism fancied Russia able to jump clean over what was thought to be a transient stage, to the highest requirements of the most advanced theory. Without knowing it, in so doing they had chosen the way of bitter disappointment and of sad practical experience." The analysis of the political parties—their infinitely varied and often startling groupings and changes—is invaluable for those who would grasp the genesis and sequence of the parties which are now striving for the control of the dangerous and complicated situation in Russia; and the whole vitally important question of the Zemstvos is stated in a masterly manner beyond the reach of foreign observers. The student of history will be interested to find that the famous and much-discussed "Constitution" of Alexander II., which that Emperor's sudden death halted, was not a constitution in any sense of the word, according to Professor Miliukoff's knowledge. This eliminates (for those who accept this newest version) the interminable discussion of Alexander III.'s and Mr. Pobiedonostzeff's action in regard to it.

In "The Socialistic Idea" Miliukoff sums up the subject at the start: "Russian Socialism, then, differs from German Socialism in that it carries to an extreme the features which have made German Socialism differ from English and American"; and he explains (among other things) that, in Russia, democracy was awakened by Socialism, instead of contrariwise, as is usually the case. In referring to the much-lauded *Mir*, or Commune, he shows how this self-governing, vote-owning institution was ruled, in true American fashion, by the few for the benefit of the powerful and wealthy. The possibilities thus suggested for misrule when universal suffrage shall have been acquired are not reassuring. Historical attempts at a constitutional monarchy and the reasons for their failure are briefly set forth, as is the forced inception and gradual development of serfdom, together with the origin of the idea among the peasants which has created and is destined still to create untold mischief, as to the suppression of imperial edicts of wide scope in their favor by the upper classes. One of the most curious points in the book is the statement of the manner in which the peasants received the Socialists who preached communism. Another is the statement: "It is very important to emphasize that 'nihilism,' though peculiar to Russia as a psychological disposition of mind, as a theory is undoubtedly of foreign extraction. In Russia it was only the belated reverberation of a movement which had had its day in both France and Germany." In this connection it is worth while to correct an error of translation which was not noticed by the friends who helped the author with his English (any more than was the characteristically Russian and sometimes misleading use of the different past tenses of verbs), though it will prove puzzling to readers. In elucidating Lavroff's theories, he says: "He even admitted that, so far from destroying the State, it would be necessary to preserve it, even 'the other day of the Revolution.'" For "the other day" read "the day after," and the sense and cogency of the remark become clear.

Of the chapter on "The Crisis and the Urgency of Reform" we can only say that nothing short of a quotation in full could do justice to its incomparable value, regarded either as a historical document, as a guide for the present difficult situation, or as a suggestion for the future, in its complete mastery of every line of the complicated subject, and the calm, reasonable, and judicial treatment of all the correlated branches. In the significant "Conclusion," the most pregnant passage is the following:

"Increased and united as they are, the forces of opposition are still not strong enough to replace the Government by a violent overthrow. But they are strong enough to make the use of violence continuous, and by increasing this to preclude any further peaceful work of civilization. . . . Public opinion will not now be satisfied with a consultative chamber, and will not join the extremists who want a federative republic and a referendum. The great majority will be glad to have . . . a constitution similar to that which was sanctioned in Bulgaria by the Russian Czar twenty-five years ago, . . . which includes universal suffrage and one chamber. The habitual argument of the Conservatives that Russia is not ready for a constitution is cut short by this example of Bulgaria. The broad democratic basis of the Constitution of that country did not correspond to the degree of political development of the Bulgarian people, but it proved highly valuable as a means of promoting their political education."

The six maps make a valuable addition to the text; and if the unusual system of transliteration for Russian names and occasional words is disturbing to those who understand the language, and positively baffling to those who do not (through its obscuration of names familiar in their ordinary forms), it has at least the merit of representing the pronunciation as well as the accepted methods.

Swinburne. By George Edward Woodberry. (Contemporary Men of Letters Series.) McClure, Phillips & Co. 1905.

Mr. Woodberry's little book about Swinburne is in no sense a biography, or even

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a literary portrait. It is, rather, a subtle and subjective study not so much of Swinburne's poetry as of his poetic impulse. Even this poetic impulse is not touched, save in a phrase here and there, chronologically. It is treated as an accomplished spiritual fact, analyzed, displayed, and invested with issues of power and beauty, that, as some may think, proceed rather from the compelling fervor of the interpreter than from the achievement of his author. There are many who would have welcomed a more consecutive account of Swinburne's forty years of poetic labor, and would have been grateful for some suggestions of his personal quality and his *milieu*. There are, however, many insidious dangers that beset the man who makes a book about a contemporary. Mr. Woodberry has probably chosen the safer as well as the more dignified course, and in the long run this study of the inspiration of the first English poet at the beginning of the twentieth century by one of the finest and truest of American poets will have a permanent interest for the discerning few that no gossipy personal record could possess, and that even a bivoluminous "Life" will not totally blot out.

Mr. Woodberry is first impressed by Swinburne as "a figure sole and supereminent, the poet republican"; and he is so at one with the revolutionary republicanism that he even finds pleasure in the poet's most effusive and fevered denunciations. "These," he says, "are curses to rejoice the heart. They mark their victims indelibly for hell." Next he is impressed by Swinburne's poetic scholarship, his citizenship in realms of gold. Of this he writes in one of the best of his paragraphs:

"He is, in fact, in his greater work of the imagination, remote from current life. He lives, withdrawn in his own thoughts, in that sphere of the poetic imagination where there is a true timelessness—the solitude thronged with figures that appear at any moment from any age, and drift across the vision or play their mimic parts before the mind's eye and disappear. It is the world of the great artists. Locrine, Erechtheus, Meleager are natural there, so are the stormy passion of the Scotch peers, the craft of English statesmen, the spectacle of Venetian pride; or Sappho or Faustine. The world of Swinburne is well symbolized by that Zodiac of the burning signs of love that he named in the prelude to 'Tristram of Lyonesse'—the signs of Helen, Hero, Alcyone, Iseult, Rosamond, Dido, Juliet, Cleopatra, Francesca, Thisbe, Angelica, Guenevere; under the heavens of these starry names the poet moves in his place apart, and sees his visions of woe and wrath and weaves his dream of the loves and the fates of men. He is a myth-lover, a dreamer, a companion of the myths and the dreams of the past, an artist of the imagination."

Then, after a brilliant if somewhat over melodious passage on Swinburne's melody, Mr. Woodberry passes in his fifth section, with a slight confusion of structure, to "the second salient trait" of his poet's work, its "rendering of the experience of passion," its paganism, in short. From Swinburne's passion he proceeds to his meditative power, with its impressive dealing with fate. These two, with the treatment of nature, which is the subject of the seventh section, Mr. Woodberry considers the three "great monochords" of Swinburne's verse. Under the last heading he has a paragraph of searching yet sympathetic criticism which is perhaps the most ponderable in the book:

"Fire, air, earth and water are the four elements from which his very vocabulary seems made up; flame, wind and foam, and all the forms of light are so much a part of his color-rhythm that they become an opaline of verse peculiarly his own; his mannerism in diction and style is chiefly a thing of his fascination with these elemental phases of matter and sensation, which are more abstractions of motion, hue and luminousness than simple objects of sight and hearing. The blurring effect of this mass of indefinable sensation, especially when metaphorically employed, even more than the overcharge of vocal sound in the verse, accounts for that impression of vacuity of meaning that Swinburne's poetry in general makes on readers not habituated to his manner."

Finally, after a section upon the human affections as they stir in Swinburne's poetry, Mr. Woodberry concludes his rhapsody of the liberty, melody, passion, fate, nature, love and fame, which are "the seven chords which the poet's hand, from its first almost boyhood touch upon the lyre, has swept now for two-score years with music that has been blown through the world."

Mr. Swinburne will be fortunate if he ever again finds an interpreter so eloquent and sympathetic as Mr. Woodberry. Yet, despite the arresting eloquence, his final high estimate of Swinburne's achievement is but partially convincing. At one point in particular does it seem to us that Mr. Woodberry protests too much. He has a great deal to say of the essentially English quality of Swinburne's Muse. He was, says Mr. Woodberry in the very beginning, "sprung of the strength of English blood," and again: "He is English, bred with an European mind, it is true, like Shelley, like Gray and Milton, but in his own genius, temperament and the path of his flight charged with the strength of England"; and yet again: "The things of strength are in his verse; it is English genius and English strength, racial in lyric power, in free intellect, in speech—none more so—and English also in its poetic scholarly tradition."

Now it is precisely in the "paths of his flight" as well as in his "poetic scholarly tradition" that Swinburne may most reasonably be maintained to be totally un-English. He has loved England and her old poets well, but his true and self-avowed masters in verse have been Hugo and Baudelaire—neither exactly of the British temperament. In his beautifully colored and cadenced wash of words, there is scant trace of the pregnancy, the weight, the sense of reserve power that made the true strength of English poetry. His is the weakness rather than the strength of passion, and it will be one of the greatest critical surprises in the history of literature if, as Mr. Woodberry expects, there shall increase "with every passing generation" the number of those "in whose hearts his poetry is lodged with power."

Ways of Nature. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

This book springs from a reaction in the author's opinions of animal intelligence, occasioned by the work of recent nature-writers, who, unwarrantably, he thinks, read the lives of wild creatures in the light of human experience, and impute to birds and beasts human motives and methods. It represents his views after a fresh study of animal life and instinct. In the various essays that make up the book, he turns the subject over and over to get light from different angles, and the gradual development of his opinions appears in the successive essays. Our summary cannot, of course, represent the wealth of illustration which the book contains.

The reaction referred to appears to have carried Mr. Burroughs far when he says that the founding of hospitals for sick or homeless cats and dogs, and the condemnation of all forms of vivisection, and the desire on our part to believe that animals are guided by reason and not by instinct, are sentimentalism. Another passage, however, states his position more happily:

"To attribute human motives and faculties to the animals is to caricature them; but to put us in such relation with them that we feel their kinship, that we see their lives embosomed in the same iron necessity as our own, that we see in their minds a humbler manifestation of the same psychic power and intelligence that culminates and is conscious of itself in man—that, I take it, is the true humanization."

Fear, love, and hunger—the need of safety, offspring, and food—are, Mr. Burroughs maintains, the prime motives of the lower animals. Three factors shape their lives—imitation, experience, and instinct. Imitation is doubtless unconscious, and only secondary things are learned in this way. Experience develops greater cunning, both in the species and in the individual, and teaches what not to do; but of positive knowledge our author believes that it accumulates little if any in the case of individual wild animals. "That old birds build better nests or sing better than young ones it would be hard to prove," he says, "though it seems reasonable that it should be so," and though young birds reared in captivity practise a long time before they sing well. Instinct, or natural prompting, is nine-tenths of the whole matter—inborn instinct acted upon by outward stimulus. The animals inherit, in this, all that they need to know to preserve their existence, the accumulated knowledge which necessity, during the evolution of the species, has taught their progenitors. This instinct, sometimes apparently resourceful and flexible in adapting itself to new conditions, looks like reason; but Mr. Burroughs holds that it is not reason. It is a part of the cosmic intelligence that is operative in the vegetable as well as the animal world, and that rises in man to the height of reasoning intelligence; but the difference between animal intelligence and human reason, though one has been evolved from the other, is a difference, not of degree, but of kind, as, by analogy, light or electricity differs in kind from the heat that was its source.

"Animal life parallels human life at many points, but it is in another plane. Something guides the lower animals, but it is not thought; something restrains them, but it is not judgment; they are provident without prudence; they are active without industry; they are skilful without practice; they are wise without knowledge; they are rational without reason; they are deceptive without guile. . . . When they are joyful, they sing or they play; when they are distressed, they moan or they cry; . . . and yet I do not suppose they experience the emotion of joy or sorrow, or anger or love, as we do, because these feelings in them do not involve

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reflection, memory, and what we call the higher nature, as with us."

Wild animals have, we are told, the faculties of perception, sense memory, and association of memories, and little else. Their instinct is intelligence directed outward, never inward, as in man. They share with man the emotions of his animal nature, but not of his moral or æsthetic nature; they know no altruism, no moral code. Mr. Burroughs maintains that we have no proof that animals in a state of nature can reflect, form abstract ideas, associate cause and effect. Animals, for instance, that store up food for the winter simply follow a provident instinct, but do not take thought for the future, any more than does the tree that forms new buds for the coming season. The captive animal chafing in its cage suffers merely physical discomfort, and is reacting instinctively against the barriers, not picturing to itself the joys of freedom. The nature of the animals prompts them to their acts, and we think of them as the result of a mental process, because similar acts in ourselves are the results of such a process. Remarkable incidents of what looks like reason, reported of wild animals by some writers, are here discredited on the ground that they contradict general observation and are probably the result of inaccurate or prejudiced seeing. Well-authenticated instances reported of domestic animals are explained as the result of association with man. Domestication, Mr. Burroughs thinks, demoralizes instinct. Apes and elephants show something akin to reasoning intelligence, and "the dog is almost a human product."

Mr. Burroughs takes issue sharply with the popular belief that animal parents consciously aim at instruction of their young. Nature provides, he says, merely that the unconscious example of the parents shall stimulate imitation in the young. The parents have no store of ideas to communicate, no knowledge in the strict sense of the word, no solicitude about the future. They have only emotions—fear, suspicion, etc.—to communicate, and all communications must refer to the moment, and be made in presence of the thing that arouses emotion. It is the instinctive play of animals that is mistaken for an attempt to teach the young. The parents sometimes take part, but do not direct; all is spontaneous and haphazard, but, by nature's provision, is always along the line of the animal's future struggle for life. Kittens play with a ball or stick as if it were a mouse; dogs race and wrestle as in the chase; birds circle and dodge as if escaping a hawk. The playground, then, is the only school of the woods, and, so far as the animals know, what goes on there is merely for pleasure.

Neither will Mr. Burroughs accept the popular idea that animals of the same species vary markedly in individuality. Animals have not, he says, the complex needs, relations, and aspirations that in man give rise to great diversity of character and capacity; therefore he is skeptical about the individual types and exceptional endowments often claimed for them. "If he [the animal-story writer] proceed upon the thought that the wild creatures have as pronounced individuality as men have, that there are master minds among them, inventors and discoverers of new ways, born captains and heroes, he will surely 'o'erstep the modesty of nature.'" Domestic animals, he admits, show some individuality; solitary wasps, a good deal. He suggests that the latter are differentiated by solitude, as men are, and that among the larger wild animals the solitary may display more individuality than the gregarious. Of this, however, he finds no proof. It appears to the reader, indeed, as if the inevitable lack of wide and intimate knowledge of the individual life of most wild creatures must seriously hamper the discussion of at least this part of the subject.

Sidney Lanier. By Edwin Mims. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. vii, 386. 1905.

The chief tests of a biography are accuracy and charm. The former this book seems to fulfil; we have not found any misstatement nor noted any omissions. Charm the book does not possess. It is pleasantly written, and will be a stimulating reminder to those who knew and loved the man as well as know and love his work. A reader coming to this book in entire ignorance of Lanier must admire the individual and might be led to read his poems, but the book scarcely compels to either, and by no means ensures a complete perusal of itself except to one already interested in its subject. Its chief fault is that it casts no enchantment over us to lure us on whether we will or no.

Specific instances of discretion and good taste are many, and examples of the reverse are few, yet it would have been far better to omit the excerpt (pp. 305-307) from Mme. Blanc's article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Perhaps some revelation of the flagrancy of the extreme Lanier cult would be felt needful by any one writing his life; but, on the one hand, the facts recorded in these passages must pain those who admire his writings without overvaluing them, and who love the character of the man himself without deifying him, while they must repel those whom a life of Lanier should allure to read his better works and to gain inspiration from what they can learn of his rare individuality. On the other hand, Mr. Mims misses the subtle Gallic flavor in what he quotes.

The rehearsal of laudations, even of the greatest authors, is likely to irritate those not already under their spell, while the pointing out of defects in the work or character of one admired as a creative genius, and revered as a man, is far more likely to arouse interest in those who are strangers to his compositions and personality. Intentionally or otherwise, this last is what Mr. Mims has done. The steady glow of his general admiration is made all the more telling by his repeated noting of Lanier's shortcomings, as on pages 2, 238, 248, 345, 346, 364-367. On page 364 he says: "He never attained, except in a few poems, that union of sound and sense which is characteristic of the best poetry." This repeated caution of statement or positive understatement of praise gives an air of fair-minded judgment to the book as a whole which makes its laudatory portions far more convincing than if they were not relieved by contrast; and such a sweeping reservation as that just quoted lends weight to the exposition of the biographer's belief in Lanier's capacities in the line of fertility and artistic finish. Mr. Mims (p. 126) attempts to gloze Lanier's characterization of the college he attended as "farcical," but he has the courage to print several healthy utterances of unwelcome truths. Delightful is what he quotes on page 290 from a letter of 1873 about a bad novel:

"And so far from endeavoring to serve the South by blindly plastering it with absurd praises, I think all true patriots ought to unite in redeeming the land from the imputation that such books are regarded as casting honor upon the section. God forbid that we should really be brought so low as that we must perforce brag of such works; and God be merciful to that man (he is an Atlanta editor) who boasted that sixteen thousand of these books had been sold in the South. This last damning fact ought to have been concealed at the risk of life, limb, and fortune."

Altogether this book tells Lanier's life in a straightforward, if not brilliant, manner, and honestly attempts to characterize him as a man, a musician, a scholar, a poet, and a critic. Much space is given to his critical utterances and to valuation of them. Particularly good (p. 351) is what Lanier said of his own critics: "Nothing has amazed me more than the timid solicitudes with which they rarefy in one line any enthusiasm they may have condensed in another, . . . forever conciliating the yet unrisen ghosts of possible mistakes." Considered as a critic, he is attractively presented, again by general commendation with emphasis upon defects which, like the faults in his poetic make-up, add to rather than detract from one's conviction of his inherent capacities, for they are essentially the defects of genius.

This biography offers no explanation of the fact that while Lanier's utterances, views and creations roused widespread interest and elicited varied response, they have nevertheless failed to win at home or abroad general acceptance of his admirers' claims. Again, and chiefly, this book acknowledges but totally fails to solve the main problem before a writer on Lanier. He thought himself a great poet, and hoped for a span of life wherein he might win all the world's adherence to his belief. A great proportion of those who knew him conceded the reasonableness of his faith, and many to-day feel that, had he been in vigorous bodily health at the date of his death, had he survived, were he alive to-day, he would have become a dominant figure in American literature and a noble presence among the great English poets. And yet no recollection of his poverty, of his ill health, anxiety, and forced haste can explain entirely such a pitiful array of quotations as even Mr. Mims's ardor has to put up with, on pages 369-375, as the best that can be culled from all his poetry. A foreigner glancing at these gleanings would dismiss Lanier from his mind as absurdly overrated and wholly negligible. A definitive biography, if it maintains the negative, must explain whence came the general impression of Lanier's greatness; if it maintains the positive, must succeed in conveying to its readers some adumbration of the poet's thrilling effect on his acquaintance. Mr. Mims leaves the riddle as he found it.

As good an index as this has, we crave in every biography.

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Radio-Activity. By E. Rutherford. Second edition. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1905. 8vo, pp. 580.

A throng of public sensations due to advances in natural science crowd upon a sexagenarian's recollection (Stewart's syrup was the greatest personal sensation of his infancy), *e. g.*, vulcanized rubber; daguerreotypes; the telegraph; Dr. William T. G. Morton's demonstration of the anæsthetic property of ether (and the ether wonder was not a week old when news came of the discovery of the planet Neptune), the same memorable year bringing straw paper, guncotton, and the sewing-machine; the stereoscope; then, the doctrine of the conservation of energy, long debated, though at first pooh-poohed by scientific magnates; the mechanical theory of heat; the Ruhmkhorff coil; Foucault's pendulum experiment; Bessemer iron; aniline dye-stuffs; the Atlantic cable; wood pulp; Pasteur's refutation of spontaneous generation as an ordinary event; spectroscopic analysis with rubidium and cæsium; the theory of natural selection; Deville's aluminium; the extensive use of nitroglycerine; Andrews's discovery of the critical temperature; the wonderful Holtz machine of 1865 (the simultaneous and equivalent Töpler machine somehow being less noised abroad), and, three years later, the Gramme dynamo; in 1869 Mendeléeff's periodic law; then a long calm, hardly broken by such successes as that made by the ammonia soda process, or such half successes as Loomis's wireless telegraphy, which, however, came into wider notice in 1877, when the telephone and phonograph had turned public attention into that channel; the first confirmation of Mendeléeff's law in the discovery of the metal gallium, duly melting, according to prediction, in the warmth of a man's palm; the azo-dyes; Pasteur's germ-theory, followed by Koch's detection of the tubercle-bacillus, and, later, by the enzyme theory; osmotic pressure; the incandescent light; stereochemistry; Weismannism; Cowles's aluminium; smokeless powder; kodaks; the new physical chemistry guided by Willard Gibbs's phase rule, and leading to liquid air and hydrogen; the successful linotype (though that can hardly be reckoned as a scientific sensation); Hall's aluminium; the electric furnace and acetylene; argon; the Röntgen rays; the flutter about Herzian waves; the contact process for the manufacture of sulphuric acids and anhydride; and, latest, radio-activity and radium. Of all these the last promises to mark the deepest revolution of scientific conceptions, by reducing matter from the rank of primordial substance to that of a special state of electricity. After that, we shall be prepared for anything, even for experimental demonstration of the tychist's doctrine that electricity is a psychical phenomenon.

To any person who wishes to be thoroughly informed concerning radio-activity, the above-cited complete digest of all that is known about it, worked out as it is to the utmost secure conclusions of a general kind, is entirely indispensable. It is, to be sure, only the second edition of a work of which the first edition seemed as perfect as possible, and follows that first edition by but fifteen months. Nevertheless, it is largely rewritten; and it would deserve notice if there were nothing more remarkable about it than that, though the preface is dated the 9th of last May, the contributions to its science made in April are so fully discussed that it is manifest that a considerable part of the rewriting of the first edition must itself have been again rewritten while the new edtion was going through the press. The fact that the second edition is almost a new work, although the first edition was everywhere hailed as most remarkable, simply evidences the wonderful advance of the science in which Professor Rutherford is himself so large and active a factor. The methods he pursues are wholly novel, though they rest on familiar and indubitable principles, and his conclusions are not open to intelligent doubt. Accordingly, we are to know that all elements whose atomic weights exceed that of bismuth, 208, are endothermic compounds, which are undergoing spontaneous dissociation accompanied with a liberation of heat energy millions of times as much as that which could be due to the combustion of as much matter. This decomposition seems to consist in the separation of helium, whose atomic weight is 4, leaving an element whose atomic weight is only 4 less than that of the element first taken. However, as to the products of the disaggregation, it is not likely that any one rule will cover all cases. We simply mention what seems to be the prevalent type.

Radium is a metal, extremely like barium, except that its atomic weight is about the sum of those of barium and of strontium, and except that the average life of an atom of radium is only about two thousand years. It casts off helium, and what is left is a chemically inert gas, somewhat like xenon. The average life of the atom of radium emanation is only five days. It decomposes, and its principal constituent, called Radium A, is left as a deposit on the surface of the vessel. The average life of the atom of Radium A is only four and a third minutes. It is converted by throwing off helium or something like that into a somewhat more volatile element called Radium B, of which the average life is half an hour. Radium B is decomposed in a different way, little studied as yet, into another, less volatile element, Radium C, whose atom has an average life of 40 or 41 minutes. This gives off, not merely such rays as radium itself emits, but, besides others, great penetration, and there is left another element, a little more volatile, called Radium D. The average life of the atom of Radium D is over half a century, and in its decomposition no rays at all are given off, and the very non-volatile element, Radium E, remains. This has an average life of nearly nine days, and, in decomposing, gives off only the more penetrating rays, none of those by which radium affects the photographic film, and is converted into the first of the new elements discovered by Mme. Curie, polonium, which has an average life of ten months. But we will not pursue these vicissitudes further. Polonium is an element very much like bismuth. Dr. Bollwood holds that all these changes come to an end with the production of lead, but we cannot understand that in an absolute sense; and it is not particularly unlikely that lead should be converted into gold. In fact, the tales of the philosopher's stone and of projection do not seem to-day half so marvellous as what we may see at any moment by looking into a spintharoscope.

The index, though it is not quite as full as we could wish, fills twenty-two pages of double columns.

Australian Life in Town and Country. By E. C. Buley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905. Pp. x., 288. Illustrations.

We are not sure whether Australians will feel complimented by being included with Japanese, Chinese, and others in a series of books on "Our Asiatic Neighbors." We have not, however, often read a volume in which solid information was conveyed in a more pleasing style. The illustrations, while having little apparent direct relation to the text, are well chosen. Hannan Street, Kalgoorlie, in 1895 and again in 1905, is especially interesting. Land and climate, country and town life, politics, education, literature and art are all treated.

The last chapter is on "Australia's Destiny." We here find a widely different Australia from that of which we were accustomed to read, and of which some of us had practical experience half a century ago. Deep-shaft and scientific mining have taken the place of the tin dish and cradle. Sheep are shorn by machinery. Bush hands seek work on bicycles. Stately mansions, in which are to be found grand pianos and the newest books, have taken the place of the slab huts formerly occupied even by rich squatters. Foxes, introduced to kill off rabbits, have themselves become pests. Camels are in certain districts used as beasts of burden—we are informed that the native-bred is a much finer animal than his Western prototype. Ox teams no longer cumber the streets of Melbourne and Sydney. Australians live in a soberer atmosphere than in the old "Cheer, boys, cheer!" days. Casual visitors—how much more "old hands"!—must feel drawn by the beckoning mystery of the pathless and still but imperfectly explored country stretching inland—the "never, never land" here so graphically described. As the clack of a windlass and the smell of tar may tend to call many an old sailor against his better judgment again to tempt the deep, so may the pages of this book rouse the desire in some old Australians again to shoulder their "swags" and take to "the wallaby track."

Whatever changes irrigation and artesian wells may bring about, Australia, with its vast proportion of desert and its uncertain seasons, can never become a United States. One would gather that the mental outlook is narrow. Sport, music, and, in a certain degree, evangelicism, have become disproportionately large interests in life. Australia does not enjoy the advantage of having been primarily colonized by men in search of religious and political freedom. One of the most interesting chapters in Mr. Buley's book is on State Socialism. In the bush, with the State for landlord, remittances of rent are through political influence obtained in bad seasons. The State owns the railways and is often compelled to advance money for roads and bridges. The State trains teachers and manages the schools. Help and supervision in the establishment of new industries is constantly demanded. After bad seasons the State sometimes provides seed, and even advances money to tide farmers over till next harvest. The State regulates the hours of labor, fixes wages, and decides industrial disputes. All this

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cannot tend to strength and individuality of character, and necessitates the existence of a large official class. Public debts are out of all proportion to population, urban to country population. The new Federal Government has a difficult task before it. Protection between the different States was logically forwarded by the creation of differing railroad gauges, insuring the transfer of merchandise at frontiers. Unification of gauge will throw an additional heavy burden on the now united Commonwealth. Jealousy between the States has so far prevented the foundation of a central capital.

Turning to revenue matters, we find it difficult to believe that Sydney holds second place in the British Empire as to the value of property rated for taxation. It is interesting to learn that the *Bulletin*, described as the ablest and most widely read journal in Australia, "frankly advocates the independence of Australia under a republican form of government." We are told that a vigorous national life is more and more asserting itself, under which the cry of "Australians for Australia" is being substituted for "Australia for Australians." Our author does not conceal the darker shades in his generally sunny picture of Australia and Australian life.

Napoleon's Notes on English History, Made on the Eve of the French Revolution. By Henry Foljambe Hall. London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1905.

The valuable part of this book is that in which appears a translation of the notes on English history taken by Napoleon in the year 1788, when he was much occupied with historical and philosophical reading. The notes are for the most part extremely concise, and give only occasional and not very illuminating glimpses of the personallty of their author. They were discovered some twenty or more years ago by Masson; they appeared shortly afterwards in the Paris *Gaulois*, and were later reprinted by Masson and Biagi in their well-known book 'Napoléon Inconnu.' They are now offered to the English-speaking public, translated by the late Mr. H. F. Hall, illustrated, as he informs us, from contemporary historians and refreshed from the findings of later research. The refreshments set forth by Mr. Hall were hardly necessary, but, as they form the major part of the book, and as in his introduction he appears to attach far more importance to them than to his author, they cannot be passed over without a word of comment.

Perhaps the most characteristic thing about this curious book is that, next to Napoleon's notes, the best thing in it is an excellent frontispiece portrait of Rapin de Thoyras, a French historian of the seventeenth century, who has, in Gilbert's immortal words, "nothing to do with the case." There is not a scrap of evidence, so far as this reviewer is aware, to show that Napoleon ever read a word of his; but Mr. Hall has, which is undoubtedly a distinction nowadays, and hence the frontispiece. Mr. Hall has a queer outlook on historical scholarship that produces most curious results. Sir Walter Scott is apparently his greatest admiration among the general historians of Napoleon, and Dr. Emil Reich, the inventor, as he believes, of psychological history (but, alas, what will Lamprecht say?), is his philosophic guide. It is doubtless the combination of Scott and Reich that leads him to statements of this sort: "One must never forget that Napoleon owed his grit, mental and physical, to the salt savor of the sea. . . . All that is best in Corsican, Frenchman, or Englishman comes from their ancestors, the Sea-rovers." Comment is needless. A few more examples may be given. The great question involved in the ceremony of coronation by the Pope from Charlemagne down to Napoleon is dismissed as one which Napoleon settled by crowning himself, "knowing the dangers of pampering a Pontiff." Mr. Hall, needless to say, is a devotee of the epilepsy theory, for the popularity of which we have to thank Lombroso, Nordau, Nisbet, and Nietzsche; when it comes to specifying in what particular the alleged epilepsy affected the course of history, we are, also of course, not enlightened. But to continue further is unnecessary. The value of the book is not in the editor's work, but entirely in the translation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Architects' Directory, 1905-06. William T. Comstock. $2 net.
Aston, W. G. Shinto (The Way of the Gods). Longmans. $2.
Blake, William. Poetical Works. Edited by John Sampson. Henry Frowde.
Cartwright, Julia. Raphael. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Collectanea. Fourth Series. Oxford Historical Society.
Dante, Gabriele Rossetti. Newnes's Art Library.
De Quincey's Essays. Edited by Carol M. Newman. Macmillan Co.
Dussaud, René. Notes de Mythologie Syrienne. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Ellis, Elizabeth. Barbara Winslow, Rebel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Eltzbacher, O. Modern Germany. Dutton. $2 net.
Finck, H. T. Edvard Grieg. John Lane Co. $1 net.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Wheel of Life. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Hannah, Henry King. The Bible for the Sick. Thomas Whittaker, $1 net.
Hooper, Chas. Edw. The Country House. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Inman, Henry. The Ranche on the Oxhide. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Johnson, Samuel. Lives of the English Poets. Edited by George B. Hill. 3 vols. Henry Frowde.
Jordan, Clara B. Elementary Latin Writing. American Book Co.
Kirkbridge, F. B., and J. E. Sterrett. The Modern Trust Company. Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.
Knight, Marietta. A Primer of Essentials in Grammar and Rhetoric. American Book Co.
Lewis and Clark Expedition. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. VIII. Atlas. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Merrill, George P. Elementary Mechanics. American Book Co.
Murray, A. H. The High-Road of Empire. Dutton. $5 net.
Koopman, Harry Lyman. At the Gates of the Century. Boston: The Everett Press.
Norris, Zoe Anderson. Twelve Kentucky Colonel Stories. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
Oppenheim, E. Phillips. A Maker of History. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
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